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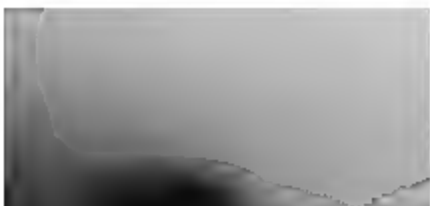


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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS,
AND ADDRESSES.

SESSION OF THE YEAR 1888,

HELD AT

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION.

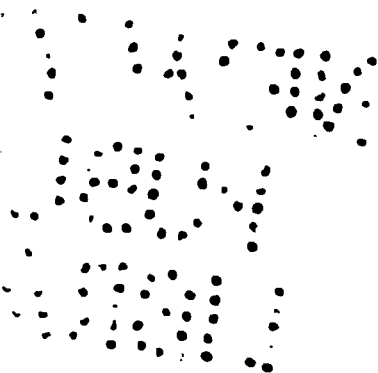
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CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled The National Educational Association.

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SECTION 1. It shall consist of nine departments: The first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; the fourth, of Higher Instruction; the fifth, of Industrial Education; the sixth, of Art Education; the seventh, of Kindergarten Instruction; the eighth, of Music Education; the ninth, of Secondary Education; and a National Council of Education.

SEC. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

SECTION 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education, or any educational association, shall be eligible to membership. Such person or association may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution, and may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On neglect to pay such fee, the membership will cease.

SEC. 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

SEC. 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, *one Director for each State, District or Territory represented in the Association*, the presiding officers of the several departments, and

a Board of Trustees to be constituted as hereinafter provided. Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf; and any educational Association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life. Whenever a life-member desires to become a life-director, he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for his life-membership.

SEC. 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Directors, Life-Directors, President of the Council, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors, and as such shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

SEC. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs; but no person shall be elected to any office of any department, or of the Association, who is not, at the time of the election, a member of the Association.

SEC. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence the first Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

SEC. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive, and, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said Board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees, and, when approved by said Board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

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Sec. 10. It shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to provide for safe keeping and investment of all funds which the Association may receive from life-directorships, or from donations; and the income of such invested funds shall be used exclusively in paying the cost of publishing the annual volume of Proceedings of the Association, excepting when donors shall specify otherwise. It shall also be the duty of the Board to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association, acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; and, when practicable, the Trustees shall invest all surplus funds exceeding one hundred dollars, that may remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year.

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By-laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

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This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

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BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.
2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.
3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its Proceedings.
4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.

ACT OF INCORPORATION.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, held at Saratoga Springs, New York, July 14, 1885, the following resolution was passed:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to secure articles of incorporation for the National Educational Association, under United States or State laws, as speedily as may be.

N. A. Calkins, of New York, Thomas W. Bicknell, of Massachusetts, and Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio, were appointed such committee.

Under the authority of the resolution quoted above, and with the approval of the committee, and by competent legal advice, the chairman obtained a

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION.

We, the undersigned, Norman A. Calkins, John Eaton, and Zalmon Richards, citizens of the United States, and two of them citizens of the District of Columbia, do hereby associate ourselves together, pursuant to the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, under the name of *The National Educational Association*, for the full period of twenty years, the purpose and objects of which are to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States: . . . To secure the full benefit of said act, we do here execute this our Certificate of Corporation as said act provides.

In witness whereof, we severally set our hands and seals, this 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C.

NORMAN A. CALKINS. [L. S.]

JOHN EATON. [L. S.]

ZALMON RICHARDS. [L. S.]

Duly acknowledged before Michael P. Callan, notary public in and for the District of Columbia, and recorded in Liber No. 4, Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Organized.
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.

1858.—CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Z. RICHARDS, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.

1859.—WASHINGTON D. C.

A. J. RICKOFF, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.

1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.

J. W. BULKLEY, President.
Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.

1861, 1862.—No session.

1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.

1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.

W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.

1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.

S. S. GREENK, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.

1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

J. P. WICKKESHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.

1867.—No session.

1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.

J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Treasurer.

1869.—TRENTON, N. J.

L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.

1870.—CLEVELAND, OHIO.

DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

1871.—ST. LOUIS, MO.

J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1872.—BOSTON, MASS.

E. F. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.

B. G. NORTHROP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1874.—DETROIT, MICH.

S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

W. T. HARRIS, President.
W. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.

1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.

W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.

1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.

M. A. NEWELL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

1878.—No session.

1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

1880.—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.

1881.—ATLANTA, GA.

JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.

1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.

1883.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1884.—MADISON, WIS.

THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
H. S. TARBELL, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1885.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1886.—TOPEKA, KAN.

N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1887.—CHICAGO, ILL.

W. E. SHELDON, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1888.—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

AARON GOVE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICERS FOR 1887-8.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

AARON GOVE,	Denver, Colorado,	<i>President.</i>
JAMES H. CANFIELD,	Lawrence, Kansas,	<i>Secretary.</i>
EDWIN C. HEWETT,	Normal, Illinois,	<i>Treasurer.</i>

Vice-Presidents.

W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.	Thos. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.	Fred. M. Campbell, California.
J. W. Holcombe, Dist. of Columbia.	Rose C. Swart, Wisconsin.	Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.
Warren Easton, Louisiana.	W. R. Garrett, Tennessee.	J. T. Buchanan, Missouri.
Solomon Palmer, Alabama.	Thos. A. Futrall, Arkansas.	A. R. Sabin, Illinois.

Board of Directors.*

Allen, J., 25 Clinton Place, New York City.	Jones, Wharton S., Memphis, Tenn.
Baker, James H., Denver, Col.	Lane, A. G., Chicago, Ill.
Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville, Ky.	Laws, S. S., Columbia, Mo.
Bartlett, Geo. H., Boston, Mass.	Landon, S. W., Burlington, Vt.
Bell, W. A., Indianapolis, Ind.	Lyte, E. O., Millersville, Pa.
Bingham, R., Bingham P. O., N. C.	Marshall, T. M., Chamita, N. M.
Brown, Leroy D., Reno, Nevada.	McDonald, T. B., Gold Hill, Nevada.
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*See Constitution, Art. IV., Sec. 2.

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1886. Fairchild, Geo. T., Manhattan. 1886. Taylor, A. R., Emporia.
1886. Jewett, A. V., Abilene.

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NEVADA.

1888. Brown, LeRoy D., Reno.

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NEW YORK.

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OHIO.

1888. Day, L. W., Cleveland.

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1881. Woodward, G. A., Selma.

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1884. Bell, Alex. Graham, Washington.

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1880. Wilson, J. Ormond, Washington.

GEORGIA.

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ILLINOIS.

1870. Allen, Ira W., Chicago.

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1876. Thompson, L. S., La Fayette.

1866. McRae, H. S., Marion.

IOWA.

1876. Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City.

1886. Pickard, J. L., Iowa City.

1870. Crosby, W. E., Des Moines. (?)

1884. Taylor, Henry J., Sioux City.

1880. Gilchrist, J. C., Cedar Falls.

1884. Willis, William A., Iowa City.

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1886. Campbell, A. G., Council Grove.

1886. Meade, Richard C., Atchison.

1886. Carruthers, Mrs. A. J., Salina.

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1886. Clark, Frank H., Minneapolis.

1886. Roop, C. Y., Holton.

1886. Coover, N., Wilson.

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1886. Tillotson, D. C., Topeka.

1886. Limerick, A. H., Winfield.

1886. Vail, T. H., Topeka.

1886. MacDonald, John, Topeka.

1886. Williams, Philo Jesse, Lawrence.

1886. McVicar, Peter, Topeka.

KENTUCKY.

1877. Bartholomew, W. C., Louisville.

1877. Monsarret, Mrs. L. L., Louisville.

1877. Kalfus, Anna F., Louisville.

MARYLAND.

1876. Newell, M. A., Baltimore.

1876. Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1884. Bascom, John, Williamstown. | 1880. Marble, A. P., Worcester. |
| 1882. Bicknell, Thos. W., Boston. | 1886. Mowry, Wm. A., Boston. |
| 1864. Hagar, Daniel B., Salem. | 1865. Sheldon, Wm. E., Boston. |
| 1876. Harris, Wm. T., Concord. | 1870. Tourgée, Eben, Boston. |
| 1870. Jones, D. W., Roxbury, Boston. | 1870. Wilcox, M. C., Boston. |

MICHIGAN.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1870. Heywood, C. W., Scotts. | 1866. Mayhew, Ira, Detroit. |
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MINNESOTA.

- | |
|---------------------------------|
| 1870. Phelps, Wm. F., St. Paul. |
|---------------------------------|

MISSOURI.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1886. Evans, Chas. H., St. Louis. | 1877. Soldan, F. Louis, St. Louis. |
| 1864. Pennell, C. S., St. Louis. | |

NEBRASKA.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1876. Beals, S. D., Omaha. | 1884. Curry, Robert, Palmyra. |
| 1880. Bibb-Sudborough, Grace C., Omaha. | 1884. James, Henry M., Omaha. |

NEVADA.

- | |
|------------------------------|
| 1887. Young, Chas. S., Reno. |
|------------------------------|

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

- | |
|--------------------------------|
| 1876. Rounds, C. C., Plymouth. |
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NEW JERSEY.

- | |
|-----------------------------------|
| 1880. Spring, E. A., Perth Amboy. |
|-----------------------------------|

NEW YORK.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1871. Anderson, John J., Brooklyn. | 1882. Hodgdon, Josephine E., Brooklyn. |
| 1864. Bradley, P., Lyons. (?) | 1879. Hoose, James H., Cortlandt. |
| 1879. Calkins, N. A., New York. | 1885. Hunter, Thomas, New York. |
| 1880. Coe, E. M., New York. | 1879. Kraus, John, New York. |
| 1883. Corey, Lucien B., Hicksville. | 1882. Morris, Hattie N., Brooklyn. |
| 1864. Cruikshank, James, Brooklyn. | 1880. Rickoff, Mrs. R. D., New York. |
| 1864. Danforth, Edward, Elmira. | 1882. Stern, M., New York. |
| 1883. Day, Mrs. Albert, New York. | 1884. Van Aikin, Mrs. G., New York. |
| 1876. Dorna, G., Videlia, New York. (?) | |

NORTH CAROLINA.

- | |
|---------------------------------------|
| 1881. Bingham, Robert, Bingham, P. O. |
|---------------------------------------|

OHIO.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1870. Arey, Oliver, Cleveland. | 1883. Harvey, Thomas W., Painesville. |
| 1884. Bennett, C. W., Piqua. | 1870. Holden, L. E., Cleveland. |
| 1880. Bennett, Hampton, Franklin. | 1879. McMillan, Reuben, Youngstown. |
| 1880. Burns, J. J., Dayton. | 1880. McMillan, Mrs. S., Youngstown. |
| 1870. Cole, W. H., Marysville. | 1880. Miller, Lewis, Akron. |
| 1883. Coy, Eliab W., Cincinnati. | 1880. Peaslee, John B., Cincinnati. |
| 1866. Curran, N. T., Sandusky. | 1882. Robert, J. A., Dayton. |
| 1880. Davidson, C. C., Alliance. | 1880. Stevenson, R. W., Columbus. |
| 1881. De Wolf, David F., Columbus. | 1882. Tappan, Eli T., Gambier. |
| 1880. Dutton, Bettie A., Cleveland. | 1870. White, Emerson E., Cincinnati. |
| 1876. Hancock, John, Chillicothe. | 1880. Widner, Esther, Dayton. |
| 1865. Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union. | 1870. Williams, Mrs. D. A., (Lathrop.)
Delaware. |

PENNSYLVANIA.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1876. Brooks, Edward, Philadelphia. | 1879. Paxon, Joseph A., Philadelphia. |
| 1879. Foster, Rachel Gordon, Phila. (?) | 1879. Shippen, Edward, Philadelphia. |
| 1879. Gratz, Simon, Philadelphia. | 1880. Singer, Edgar A., Philadelphia. |
| 1865. Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg. | 1884. Stewart, Sarah A., Philadelphia. |
| 1880. Partridge, Lelia E., W. Phila. | 1865. Wickersham, James P., Lancaster. |

RHODE ISLAND.

1872. Stone, E. M., Providence.

TENNESSEE.

1887. Conway, Clara, Memphis.

TEXAS.

1877. Franklin, M. B., Grapevine. (?)

VIRGINIA.

1870. Manly, R. M., Richmond.

WISCONSIN.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1884. Albee, Geo. S., Oskosh. | 1870. Hoyt, J. W. |
| 1884. Aylward, John Arthur, Black Earth. | 1887. Hutton, A. J., Platteville. |
| 1884. Beck, George, Plattville. | 1884. Nye, Charles H., Platteville. |
| 1884. Carpenter, J. H., Madison. | 1884. Parker, Warren D., River Falls. |
| 1884. Chandler, W. H., Madison. | 1884. Parkinson, John B., Madison. |
| 1884. Charlton, E. A., Brodhead. | 1884. Rusk, J. M., Madison. |
| 1884. Clark, L. H., Tomah. | 1884. Shaw, Samuel, Antigo. |
| 1884. Eden, Philip, Plattville. | 1884. Stark, Joshua, Milwaukee. |
| 1884. Emery, J. Q., Ft. Atkinson. | 1884. Stewart, I. N., Appleton. |
| 1884. Flavin, J. T., Watertown. | 1884. Stearns, J. W., Madison. |
| 1884. Graham, Robert, Madison. | 1884. Thayer, J. B., Madison. |
| 1884. Harvey, Lorenzo Dow, Oskosh. | 1884. Twining, N. C., Monroe. |
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 1884. Board of Regents of State Normal Schools.
 1884. Janesville—Board of Education.
 1884. Janesville—Public School Teachers.
 1884. La Crosse—Board of Education.
 1884. Milwaukee—Alumni Association of City Normal School, William J. Desmond, Representative for 1888.
 1884. Milwaukee—Board of Education.
 1884. Milwaukee—County Teachers' Association.
 1884. Milwaukee—Intermediate and Upper Sections, Milwaukee Teachers' Corps.
 1884. Milwaukee—Primary Section Milwaukee Teachers' Corps.
 1884. Milwaukee—Principals' Association.
 1884. Milwaukee—Spencerian Business College.

- 1884. Oshkosh—Board of Education.
- 1884. Platteville—Athenæum Literary Society, State Normal School.
- 1884. Platteville—Philadelphian Society, State Normal School.
- 1884. Platteville—State Normal School.
- 1884. Watertown—Board of Education.
- 1884. Wisconsin County Superintendents' Association.
- 1884. Wisconsin Principals' Association.
- 1884. Wisconsin Teachers' Association.

MINUTES,
OFFICIAL REPORTS,
AND
REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

The Association met in Mechanics' Pavilion, San Francisco, California, on the evening of Tuesday, July 17th, at eight o'clock. The meeting was called to order by Ira G. Hoitt, State Superintendent of Instruction of California. The invocation was pronounced by C. C. Stratton, President of Mills Seminary, California. The audience then rose and sang the familiar *Doxology*, being led by the orchestra and a chorus of six hundred voices.

The Chairman then introduced Governor Waterman, of California, who welcomed the Association on behalf of the State; Mayor Pond, who spoke for the city of San Francisco; Supt. J. W. Anderson, representing the teachers of San Francisco; and Mr. Albert S. Cook, President of the California State Teachers' Association, who extended the right hand of fellowship for his Association. The Chairman also spoke in his official capacity as being at the head of the educational work of the State; and then introduced Mr. Gove, the President of the Association, who took the chair.

Responses were made by Mr. Gove, by the Secretary of the Association, by Mr. W. E. Sheldon of Boston, and by Commissioner N. H. R. Dawson of the National Bureau of Education. Brief remarks were also made by Supt. F. M. Campbell of the Oakland schools, and by J. K. Wilson, Chairman of the Local Reception Committee.

No papers were read, and no formal business was undertaken; the meeting being in the nature of a reception tendered by California to the Association.

The chorus and orchestra rendered several musical numbers during the evening, under the leadership of W. H. Kinross.

The exercises closed with *America*, by orchestra, chorus and audience.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.

The Association met in the Grand Opera House, on Wednesday, July 18th, and was called to order by President Gove at 9 A. M.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Elbert R. Dille, D. D., of the First M. E. Church, Oakland, Cal.

On motion of the Secretary, T. H. McBride, of Iowa, was elected Assistant Secretary.

W. E. Sheldon moved: That the new Board of Directors be requested to appoint a special committee of five or seven to take into consideration the importance of having a permanent Secretary appointed for the Association, whose duty it shall be to transact the business of the Association; and also to consider the importance of having a stated and permanent place of meeting; and to suggest such other changes as in the judgment of this committee seem wise to meet the demands of the Association in its future work.

Mr. Sheldon spoke somewhat at length in supporting this motion, urging the necessity of some action to meet the rapid growth and changing character of the Association.

The motion was seconded by Mr. Richards of Washington, and by Mr. Schaeffer of Pennsylvania.

Carried.

The Chair then appointed the following committees:

On the Exposition—to appoint its own sub-committees, and to report for the volume of Proceedings: Messrs. Harris of Massachusetts, Fairchild of Kansas, and Thompson of Indiana.

On Resolutions: Messrs. Hancock of Ohio, Swett of California, Allen of New York, Soldan of Missouri, and Miss Nicholson of Indiana.

The Committee on Necrology, appointed early in the year, consisted of Messrs. Brown of Illinois, Rickoff of New York, Winship of Massachusetts, Chambers of Louisiana, and Richards of Washington. In the absence of Mr. Brown, the President named Mr. Stevenson of Ohio as chairman of this committee.

The theme of the morning was then taken up,—*Literature in the Reading Courses of the Public Schools*.

Papers were read by Horace E. Scudder, of Massachusetts; Leroy Halsey, of Michigan; and Mary L. Beecher, of Tennessee.

A half-paper was read by W. T. Harris, of Massachusetts, on the theme,—*Ought Young Girls to Read the Daily Newspapers?*

The committee appointed at Chicago in 1887 to take into consideration the matter submitted to the convention in a communication from Miss Frances Willard on the subject of Temperance Instruction in the Public Schools, reported progress, and asked for further time. Granted.

Discussion of the papers which had been read was then carried on by J. H. Paul, of Utah; D. B. Parkinson, of Illinois; F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri; Zalmon Richards, of Washington; T. M. Marshall, of New Mexico.

Adjourned to meet at the same place at eight P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met in the Grand Opera House, at the time appointed; President Gove in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Robert Mackenzie, of the First Presbyterian Church of San Francisco.

The Chair announced the following Committee on Nomination of officers for the ensuing year:

R. W. Stevenson, of Ohio, *Chairman*; Alabama, J. B. Leavitt; California, Ira G. Hoitt; Colorado, J. S. Shattuck; Connecticut, George B. Hurd; Georgia, W. R. Thigpen; Illinois, John W. Cook; Indiana, S. S. Parr; Iowa, J. L. Pickard; Kansas, George T. Fairchild; Kentucky, W. H. Bartholomew; Maine, M. C. Fernald; Massachusetts, W. E. Sheldon; Michigan, Le Roy Halsey; Minnesota, O. B. Gilbert; Mississippi, W. A. Montgomery; Missouri, J. M. Greenwood; Nebraska, H. M. James; Nevada, George Gillespie; New Jersey, O. J. Prescott; New York, Jerome Allen; Oregon, E. B. McElroy; Pennsylvania, George Luckey; Rhode Island, Thomas J. Morgan; South Carolina, Dr. Frazer; Tennessee, W. R. Garrett; Texas, Joseph Baldwin; Vermont, A. H. Campbell; Wisconsin, J. B. Thayer; District of Columbia, Zalmon Richards; Arizona, W. W. Gillette; Dakota, George A. McFarland; Montana, N. V. Rork; New Mexico, T. M. Marshall; Utah, D. R. Allen; Washington Territory, V. B. Gault.

Vacancies were filled by nominations by the house as follows:

Miss M. L. Foster, Little Rock, for Arkansas; John M. Ordway, for Louisiana; Superintendent J. E. McCahan, Baltimore, for Maryland; Rev. Wm. R. White, Morgantown, for West Virginia; Lyman B. Tefft, Richmond, for Virginia; N. H. R. Dawson, for Alaska.

A telegram of greeting was read from the Inter-Provincial Convention of Teachers at St. Johns, New Brunswick; and suitable reply was ordered.

The Pundita Ramabai was then introduced, and spoke on a new plan for the education and consequent elevation of Hindoo women.

The theme of the evening was then taken up: *How Can Our Schools Best Prepare Law-Abiding and Law-Respecting Citizens?*

Papers were read by Duncan Brown, of Kansas; Joseph Baldwin, of Texas; and George H. Atkinson, of Oregon.

In the discussion which followed, the paper prepared by B. F. Tweed was read by W. E. Sheldon.

H. S. Jones also spoke on the theme of the evening.

Adjourned to meet at the same place, Thursday morning, at nine o'clock.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.

The Association met at the time and place agreed upon; President Gove in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. John A. Cruzan, of San Francisco.

The theme of the morning was: *Current Criticism on the Public School System, and What Answer?*

Papers were read by John W. Cook, of Normal, Illinois, and Lillie J. Martin, of Indianapolis, Indiana. John P. Irish, of San Francisco, spoke on the theme: *The Schools Fail to Give a Proper Preparation for Active Life.*

A half-paper was read by W. E. Sheldon.

The discussion was carried by T. J. Morgan, of Rhode Island; Ira More, of California; Jerome Allen, of New York; F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri; W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts; Fred. M. Campbell, of California; Mr. Jones, of California; and Geo. T. Fairchild, of Kansas.

Mr. Harris, of Massachusetts, offered the following;

Resolved, That at the next annual meeting of this Association one of the general sessions be set apart for hearing such papers on psychological and pedagogical observation as shall have been received and approved by the Executive Committee of this Association.

And further, *Resolved*, That the President of this Association be and the same is hereby directed to appoint a committee of three members to receive and report to the Executive Committee such papers as are received under the provisions of the preceding section. •

Mr. Harris hoped that Miss Martin might be the Chairman of the committee to be thus appointed.

The resolutions were seconded by Mr. Richards, of Washington.

Mr. Sheldon desired to have this matter referred to the new Board of Directors.

Mr. Soldan moved that the resolutions be referred to the proper committee.

It was so ordered.

A communication relating to the founding of a Teachers' Home was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The Association then adjourned to meet at the same place at eight p. m.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met at the time and place set at the last adjournment; Vice-President Campbell in the chair.

Rev. Richard Harcourt, of the Henry Street M. E. Church, San Francisco, offered prayer.

The following were announced as judges to pass upon exhibits at the Exposition, and to make the awards of premiums offered by California: Miss Emma Wiggin, Miss Emma Pechin, and Messrs. C. W. Childs and F. E. Flinn, of California; John Hancock, of Ohio; T. F. Luckey, of Brooklyn, N. Y.; and Jerome Allen, of New York.

The Chairman introduced Col. A. Andrews, of San Francisco, who in turn introduced Miss Minnie Freeman, the heroine of the Nebraska blizzard, who was warmly greeted by the Association.

The theme of the evening was "*Practical*" Education.

Papers were read by James H. Baker, of Colorado; R. K. Buehrle, of Pennsylvania; and J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri. Those taking part in the discussion were Miss Josephine C. Locke, of Missouri; L. S. Thompson, of Indiana; and George T. Fairchild, of Kansas.

The Association then adjourned to meet at the same place at nine o'clock on the following morning.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.

The Association met at the time and place agreed on; President Gove in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. John A. Cruzan, of San Francisco.

The Nominating Committee then made the following report:

The following persons are unanimously nominated for the positions opposite their respective names, to serve for the ensuing year:

For President: A. P. Marble, Worcester, Massachusetts.

For Secretary: Jas. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kansas.

For Treasurer: E. C. Hewitt, Normal, Illinois.

For Vice Presidents: Aaron Gove, Colorado; Ira G. Hoitt, California; E. E. Higby, Pennsylvania; John W. Cook, Illinois; W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts; C. E. Hodgkin, New Mexico; C. J. Prescott, New Jersey; W. B. Garrett, Tennessee; Irwin Shepard, Minnesota; Alex. Hogg, Texas; Henry A. Wise, Maryland; T. J. Morgan, Rhode Island.

For Board of Directors: J. A. B. Lovett, Huntsville, Ala.; Miss M. L. Foster, Little Rock, Ark.; J. W. Anderson, San Francisco, Cal.; J. S. Shattuck, Denver, Col.; Geo. B. Hurd, New Haven, Conn.; W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Ga.; H. H. Belfield, Chicago, Ill.; Cyrus W. Hodgkin, Richmond, Ind.; J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.; Duncan Brown, Highland, Kan.; W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.; J. M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.; M. C. Fernald, Orono, Me.; J. E. McCahan, Baltimore, Md.; Alonzo Meserve, Boston, Mass.; J. M. Wellington, Muskegon, Mich.; C. B. Gilbert, St. Paul, Minn.; J. W. Johnson, Oxford, Miss.; C. H. Dutcher, Warrensburg, Mo.; H. M. James, Omaha, Neb.; W. C. Dovey, Carson City, Nevada; C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.; Jos. Clark, Newark, N. J.; S. M. Finger, Raleigh, N. C.; Jerome Allen, New York City, N. Y.; R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, Ohio; E. B. McElroy, Salem, Oregon; Geo. Luckey, Pittsburg, Pa.; W. N. Ackley, Warren, R. I.; Henry P. Archer, Charleston, S. C.; Wharton S. Jones, Memphis, Tenn.; Prest. A. Clark, Thorp's Springs, Tex.; A. H. Campbell, Vermont; Lyman B. Tefft, Richmond, Va.; W. R. White, Morgantown, W. Va.; J. B. Thayer, Madison, Wis.; Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.; N. H. R. Dawson, Washington, D. C.; C. M. Strauss, Tucson, Arizona; Geo. B. McFarland, Scotland, Dak.; E. A. Carleton, Helena, Montana; — Owen, Raton, New Mexico; J. F. Millsbaugh, Salt Lake City, Utah; F. B. Gault, Tacoma, W. T.; J. O. Churchill, Cheyenne, Wyoming.

On motion of Mr. Harris of Massachusetts, the Secretary was empowered to cast the ballot of the Association for the officers as reported.

The Secretary reported that the ballot was so cast.

The President announced that the officers reported were then the officers of the Association for the coming year.

The President of the Council then made the following report:

To the National Educational Association: The Council held six sessions in accordance with the program announced. One report was presented at each session, and a spirited discussion followed.

Five of the reports were ordered published, and the sixth was referred back for further consideration and report two years hence.

The reports ordered published were upon the following subjects :

1. Elective System in Colleges.
2. Books on Pedagogy.
3. Agricultural Colleges and their Equipment.
4. Waste in Education.
5. Business Side of City School Systems.

Discussion upon the last was not completed for want of time and will be resumed next year.

Officers elected for the ensuing year are :

President, J. L. Pickard ; Vice-President, W. T. Harris ; Secretary and Treasurer, Mary E. Nicholson.

Respectfully submitted.

J. L. PICKARD, *President*.

The report was received and adopted.

The Secretary then read the letters and papers forming the invitation from the State of Tennessee to hold the next meeting of the Association at Nashville.

Referred to the incoming Board of Directors.

The Committee on Resolutions asked further time in which to report, which was granted.

The theme of the morning was then taken up: *The Relation of the State to School Books and Appliances*.

Papers were read by John Swett, of California; R. W. Stevenson, of Ohio; and Albert P. Marble, of Massachusetts.

The discussion was carried by L. S. Cornell, of Colorado; E. E. Higbee, of Pennsylvania; and Homer B. Sprague, of Dakota.

Mr. Hoitt, of California, introduced Col. Jonathan B. Stevenson, of California, who spoke briefly of his early experiences on the coast.

The Committee on Necrology presented the following:

Your Committee on Necrology begs leave to report that the following distinguished members of this body have died during the year, and that fitting sketches of their lives and eminent services as educators will be prepared and published in the volume of Proceedings: Israel W. Andrews, John W. Bulkley, Gustavus J. Orr, James Sydney Rollins, and others.

R. W. STEVENSON, *Chairman*.

The Association then adjourned to meet at the same place at eight P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at quarter of eight, at the place agreed upon; Pres. Gove in the chair.

Mrs. Edna Snell Poulson, of Oakland, California, spoke on physical training from the Delsarte standpoint; illustrating the system with a class upon the platform.

C. W. Childs, of San José, for the committee appointed by the Local Executive Committee to make awards on exhibits at the Exposition, reported as follows:

A prize of \$500 was offered for the best State exhibit; and a prize of \$200 was offered for the best industrial exhibit. The committee recommend that the first

prize of \$500 be divided between the States of Missouri and Massachusetts, \$300 to Missouri and \$200 to Massachusetts.

That the second prize of \$200 for the best exhibit of industrial work, be given to St. Louis; and that a diploma be given to the Ladies' Technical School of Design in New York for excellent exhibits.

Also, that a diploma be given to the State of Oregon and the State of Illinois for excellent work.

On motion of E. C. Hewett, a committee was appointed, consisting of Messrs. Hewett, Marble, and Eaton, to consider the matter of permanent Secretary and other business referred to in the motion which Mr. Sheldon made at the first general meeting of the Association.

The Committee on Resolutions then made its report.

A special report on the workings of a Teachers' Aid Society was then made by Miss Nellie E. Owens, of San Francisco.

Under the theme, *What is Needed in Our Public School System to Secure Respect for Common Labor or Wage-Working?* W. N. Ackley, of Rhode Island, read a paper on the True Idea of American Labor.

George H. Howison, of California, also spoke on the same theme.

Mr. Hoitt announced the death of Miss Johnson, of the Wisconsin Delegation, from heart disease; and gave notice that commemorative exercises would take place at 531 Post street, before the remains were returned to the East.

President Gove then made a short farewell address, and appointed Messrs. Hancock and Soldan a committee to conduct President-elect Marble to the platform.

The gavel of the presiding officer was then given Mr. Marble, and he was introduced to the Association as the President for the coming year.

Taking the chair, Mr. Marble made a short address, and called on Mr. Fairchild, of Kansas, to pronounce the benediction; which being done, the Association adjourned *sine die*.

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

July 17th, 1888, the first meeting of the Board of Directors was called to order, at Odd Fellows' Hall, at 3 o'clock; President Gove in the chair. Present: Messrs. Baker, Bartlett, Leroy D. Brown, Canfield, Dougherty, Garrett, Gove, Hewett, Hoitt, Marshall, Montgomery, Parker, Parr, Pickard, Richards, Sheldon, Shepard, Stewart, Straus, Thigpen.

The President spoke briefly on the outlook for the Association, calling attention to the suggestions of the last circular letter issued by the executive officers.

Mr. Sheldon sustained the general remarks of the President, and gave notice that he should bring into the general Association a motion to call on the new Board of Directors to create a committee who should take a year to consider the desirability of securing a permanent Secretary and a permanent home for the Association.

Mr. Richards sustained Mr. Sheldon's remarks, especially as to the necessity and desirability of securing a permanent home for the Association.

Mr. Hoitt spoke favorably of the suggestions that had been made.

The usual order of business was then taken up.

President Pickard, of the Council, moved that a committee of three be appointed to nominate persons to membership of the Council in place of those persons whose terms have expired.

Messrs. Pickard, Sheldon, and Stewart of Utah, were appointed such committee.

Mr. Richards then presented the second annual report of the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Montgomery moved that the report be received and adopted.

Carried.

Mr. Sheldon suggested that the income of last year would probably be increased by not using the full \$300 reserved for the distribution of volumes; as that amount, probably, would not be necessary.

The Treasurer then presented his report.

Moved that it be approved and be printed in the next volume of Proceedings.

Carried.

Mr. Sheldon suggested a general statement by the President to the Association of the financial condition of the Association, and referred to the interest taken by the railways and the amounts received from them in connection with the sale of tickets.

Mr. Hewett nominated Mr. Richards to succeed himself upon the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Sheldon seconded the nomination, adding that it was very necessary to have one Trustee resident in the city of Washington.

The motion was then carried.

Mr. Richards thanked the Board for reelection, and reported nine thousand volumes of Reports on hand.

Mr. Baker asked if complete sets were on hand.

Mr. Richards reported about eight years to be missing.

Mr. Pickard suggested that if missing volumes could be supplied, by reprint or otherwise, it would be easy to sell complete sets of the Association's Proceedings, as there had been considerable demand for these.

Mr. Richards stated that he hoped to buy one complete set of the widow of the first Secretary, Mr. Bulkley.

Mr. Sheldon thought volumes ought to be distributed to literary institutions, at the discretion of the Trustees.

It was moved that the Board of Trustees be authorized to distribute the back volumes of the Proceedings to libraries and to other institutions and persons where they will be useful to promote the cause of education.

Carried.

Mr. Marshall spoke, urging the desirability of complete sets.

Mr. Hewett moved that the Board consider the desirability of reprinting sufficient numbers to complete the sets.

Mr. Richards was sure that large numbers could be sold if the sets were full.

Mr. Campbell moved an amendment, to give the Board the power to reprint if it was found feasible.

Mr. Hewett accepted the amendment, and the motion was so changed.

The question of expense was then discussed, Mr. Sheldon being decidedly opposed to the work going into the hands of the Government printer, as being more expensive than to have the work done by private hands.

The motion was then carried.

Mr. Campbell asked, with regard to the nine thousand volumes on hand, if they were largely of one year.

Mr. Richards reported that they covered about twenty years, but were not equally distributed.

Mr. Sheldon moved that the President and Secretary be authorized to approve all bills connected with the meeting of 1888, and report same to the Treasurer for payment, and to the Trustees.

Carried.

Mr. Sheldon moved that the President and Secretary be made a committee of publication, to act in concurrence with the Treasurer and the Trustees.

Carried.

The presentation of bills was then called for.

President Gove explained his action in refusing approval to certain bills coming from departments early in the year.

Mr. Sheldon spoke, approving this action and explaining the relations of departments to the general Association; and asked for a conservative policy. He also referred to the rule, or precedent, of holding but two meetings in each department, and urged that it be continued.

Mr. Parr dissented, and asked for money and means for Department work. He thought the Departments should not be mere tags to the Association. He reported the needs of his own Department, that of Normal Instruction, in connection with the necessary expenses of collecting statistics and certain general expenditures which could not be avoided. He thought, he said, that the Association must specialize as all similar associations have done, and specializing calls for money. He expressed ignorance of the rule discountenancing three meetings of Departments.

Mr. Sheldon concurred, he said, in the general spirit of Mr. Parr's remarks, but still urged that a conservative policy should be pursued.

Mr. Pickard thought the Departments should ask each new Board for a given amount at the beginning of the year, and then not exceed that appropriation.

Mr. Richards said that the request should be specific and for expenses actually incurred, and not simply as anticipating expenses.

Mr. Parr disclaimed any thought of careless work or any countenance of careless expenditures.

The matter was then dropped, and President Pickard made the following report:

The terms of service in the Council of members appointed by the Board of Directors, have expired in the following cases: C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; H. S. Jones, of Pennsylvania; Zalmon Richards, of Washington, D. C.; J. H. Baker, of Colorado; also T. B. Stockwell, who, by reason of absence, has been transferred to the list of honorary members.

The report was accepted, and referred to the proper committee.

Mr. Sheldon then moved that, as an expression of the appreciation of the Board of the services of the Secretary during the past two years, the sum of \$500 should be appropriated to him.

Carried.

The Secretary stated that when this matter was suggested to him last evening, his first thought was to say at once that he could not accept this gift. His work had been undertaken and had been carried on with no thought of reward other than that of the pleasure which he derived from the sense of acceptable service to the Association. But in consulting with others he had caught more fully, perhaps, the more than kindly spirit of the Board; and, thanking them for the expression of their confidence, would accept their testimonial in the same spirit in which it was tendered, and trans-

fer it to his children as a souvenir of this meeting. He trusted, however, that this action of the Board would not be considered a precedent.

Mr. Garrett asked leave to present the claims of Nashville as the place for holding the next meeting, which was granted.

The Committee on Nomination of Members of the Council reported as follows: C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; H. S. Jones, of Pennsylvania; Zalmon Richards, of Washington; and J. H. Baker, of Colorado, to succeed themselves; and Thos. J. Morgan, of Rhode Island, to succeed T. B. Stockwell, who has been placed upon the list of honorary members.

The report was accepted and adopted, and the gentlemen named were declared members of the Council.

Mr. Hoitt explained the conditions of admission to the Pavilion, and other matters of like nature.

Mr. Shepard, referring again to the matter of expenses of Departments, thought the Board should take some definite action, and that the Departments should be encouraged to push their work in every direction.

Mr. Sheldon accepted the suggestion, and asked that the Presidents of Departments be requested to go before the new Board and ask definitely for appropriations for their work.

Mr. Wilkinson said that the sections did not know and could not know in advance what they needed, and therefore could not make a definite request of the new Board. He thought there should be some discretion on the part of both the officers of Departments and the executive officers of the Association.

Mr. Parr said that he should apply for not less than \$50 for his Department.

Mr. Marshall did not approve of the plan of establishing a maximum for each Department, but thought the matter should be left to the discretion of the executive officers—bills to be reported and approved as were all others.

Mr. Campbell asked those present to secure the supplementary bulletins, and spoke in detail of the arrangements which had been made for the entertainment of the guests of California and of the city. He invited the Directors, when they adjourned, to visit the California State Teachers' Association, and referred at length to the other headquarters which had been established in the city.

The Board then adjourned, subject to the call of the President.

NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Friday, July 20th, the new Board of Directors met at 3 o'clock, and were called to order by President Marble in the chair. Present the following: Allen, Campbell, Carlton, Canfield, Clark, Dougherty, Dovey, Foster, Garrett, Gilbert, Gove, James, Johnson, Jones, Lovett, McCahan, McFarland, Peabody, Richards, Stratton, Strauss, Thigpen.

It was moved by Mr. Dovey that the next meeting should be held at Nashville.

Seconded by Mr. Garrett.

Mr. Clarke suggested that an informal vote be taken, and that then the matter be referred to the Executive Committee as had been customary in the past. He moved this as an amendment to the original motion.

Mr. Hoitt asked if any other invitations had been received.

The Secretary replied that invitations were presented from Saratoga and from Newport, R. I.

Mr. Johnson spoke very strongly in favor of holding the meeting in the South, and urged the influence of such a meeting in connection with the "New South." He himself was in favor of Nashville.

Mr. Garrett spoke very strongly in favor of Nashville.

Mr. Hoitt also spoke in favor of Nashville, but believed in a final reference of the whole matter to the Executive Committee.

Mr. Thigpen favored meeting in the South, and though he had not at first favored Nashville he now believed that the Convention should be held in that city. He expected all delegates would visit the Eastern coast and other parts of the South while there.

Mr. Richards favored making the Association national, and said we needed a Southern meeting.

Mr. Campbell also favored meeting in the South, and spoke of the benefit of personal contact between members of the Association as they meet from year to year, as well as of the great advance of all educational interests in any State or community where the Association was held.

Mr. Garrett said he did not wish to formulate a resolution or motion which would in any way tie the hands of the Executive Committee.

It was then moved that the communications from Nashville and from the Governor of the State of Tennessee and from other official bodies be received and referred to the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, together with the First and Second Vice-Presidents, with power to determine the time and place of the next annual meeting of this Association; with instructions that they select the city of Nashville, Tennessee, *provided*, that all satisfactory arrangements can be made therefor.

Mr. Gove then spoke upon the transportation problem, and asked that the matter be left to the three executive officers entirely.

Mr. Campbell accepted this as an amendment to the last motion.

Mr. Dovey asked if there would be any less difficulty with railroad matters elsewhere than at Nashville.

Mr. Hewett referred to Saratoga and the condition of railway affairs there, as being favorable to the Association.

Mr. Richards spoke of the evident kindly feeling of the Midland road.

Mr. Campbell stated that he had been expecting President Gove would explain how he carried the Association through with the railroad troubles of the present year.

Mr. Gove then spoke somewhat at length of the great services rendered the Association by Mr. Goodman of the Southern Pacific Railway.

Mr. Parker said that in spite of all that had been said thus far, the Eastern roads had made the concessions which had been asked, and the two-dollar membership fee had been added west of the Missouri river.

Mr. Allen said he was sure the two dollars was added and paid at New York.

Mr. Richards said he was sure it was added and paid at Washington.

Mr. Clark said that the Pennsylvania Railway had disputed him and his word in this matter, and had endeavored to establish the fact that the two dollars was added west of the Missouri River.

Mr. Campbell said it was very evident that railway matters were somewhat complicated.

The motion as amended was then carried.

Mr. Parr, being present, then spoke for the Department of Normal Education, asking for an appropriation for expenses of investigating the curricula of normal schools. He said that the Department should receive at least \$50.

Mr. Richards moved that the three executive officers approve, at discretion, all bills from Departments.

The Secretary then called attention to a communication from the Department of Music, calling for an appropriation not to exceed \$100 for the expenses of conducting investigations with regard to instruction in music in this country.

Mr. Campbell thought that the amounts should be specifically limited in each Department; that is, that the executive officers should not approve to exceed a given amount. He also thought that the Departments were in danger of being overshadowed by the Association. He spoke at length of the local committees in California in connection with each Department, and their success in arousing enthusiasm in Department effort.

Mr. Parker, referring to the fact that there were nine Departments, moved a maximum of \$50 for each Department.

Mr. Campbell wished the Music and Kindergarten Departments to be excepted from this maximum, and granted at least \$100.

Mr. Parker thought there was a little danger, in regard to the Music Department, of being called upon to meet expenses of free concerts, and not of educational effort. He would be willing to make an exception in favor of the Kindergarten.

Mr. Allen thought this an entering wedge. We ought to encourage original research, but we should be careful that the researches were not directed too pointedly toward the treasury of the Association.

Mr. Richards hoped that a total sum might be fixed, and within that, as being the appropriation for all Departments, the officers might be given discretion to approve bills.

Mr. Parker accepted this as an amendment.

Mr. Dovey wished to know what bills were customary and what expenses were generally incurred.

Mr. Dougherty stated that they were such as hall rent, circulars, and postage. He thought there need be very little outside of these, and on the whole did not favor the motion.

Mr. Thigpen asked if any bills that were at all reasonable had ever been rejected when presented by Departments.

The Secretary replied, never, as far as his knowledge went. Of course all officers in incurring bills took their chances of meeting the approval of the Board.

Mr. Gilbert thought there should be some limit, but believed it would be better for all bills to come before the Board directly. It would certainly relieve the three executive officers of considerable responsibility, and possibly avoid some unpleasant complications.

Mr. Gove, for the benefit of the new Board, again made the statement as to the correspondence of last year on this question of appropriations.

Mr. Peabody then asked for a vote on the amendment, and moved the previous question.

The amendment was lost.

The question as to a maximum appropriation of \$50 for each Department was then put, and lost.

A division being called for, the vote was ten for and eighteen against.

It was then moved that the amount already expended by the Normal Department be paid, provided it did not exceed \$50.

Carried.

Mr. Gove then spoke of the Chicago & Alton Railway having pledged one-half rates to members of the Association for the next meeting, wherever that meeting was held.

It was then moved to lay the communication and request from the Department of Music on the table.

The motion was lost.

On a division being called for, the motion was found to have been lost by a vote of thirteen to seven.

Mr. Gilbert then moved that the Board express its interest in the work of this Department; that it recommend the Department of Music to undertake the work which it had laid down in its communication, and to present the bills in the usual way to the Board of Directors.

Mr. Parker thought that courtesy to the Department of Music called for something more than an expression of interest, and moved that all reasonable and just bills be presented, and that a guaranty be made that they will receive due attention.

The Secretary was instructed to courteously inform the Department of the action of the Board on its communication.

Mr. Dovey then moved that the Board extend a formal vote of thanks to the Chicago & Alton Railway.

Mr. Parker spoke of the work of special agents of the different railways in behalf of the Association, and thought that the vote of thanks should include these.

Mr. Richards thought that the thanks would better be extended to all the roads for what they had done, than to one road for what it promised to do.

Mr. Gove spoke against the motion as being a matter altogether too delicate, in its many complications, to be handled in a public way through action of the Board. He suggested that all railway matters had better be left to the executive officers having the arrangements of the meeting in hand.

Mr. Hoitt then called attention to the fact that Miss Lucy Johnson, of Black River Falls, Wisconsin, a visiting teacher, had died suddenly that morning, and that the remains were at 531 Post street. He suggested that the Board ought to take some action in this matter.

Mr. Hewett said that Superintendent Thayer, of Wisconsin, had already taken all necessary steps for the care of the body, the information of relatives, and the transportation of the remains to Wisconsin.

The Board then adjourned.

SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S REPORT.

EDWIN C. HEWETT, TREAS., IN ACCOUNT WITH NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Dr.					
1887. Balance from acc't of 1886....		\$14 00	Printing volume Proceedings, 1887,	\$2,682 79	
From four Life-Directors.....	\$400 00		Binding volume Proceedings, 1887,	1,036 14	
From three Life-Members....	60 00		Distributing volumes 1887 to mem-		
From 9,396½ Annual Mem-			bers.....	1,237 29	
bers.....	18,793 50		Supervision of printing and dis-		
From volumes sold.....	14 00		tributing volumes 1887	188 08	
From interest on perma-					\$5,
nent fund.....	317 91		Expenses of President arranging		
		19,585 41	for Chicago meeting.....	\$576 55	
			Special expenses at Chicago meet-		
			ing	168 73	
			Stenographic report of proceed-		
			ings, and special reporting for		
			Secretary	114 00	
			Expenses of Superintendent of		
			Transportation, clerical assist-		
			ance, collecting railroad coupons,		
			etc	541 03	
			Extending time of return tickets		
			and stamps, required by railroad		
			associations at Chicago.....	525 00	
					1,
			Expenses of Treasurer, assistants,		
			etc	\$92 22	
			Railroad coupons refunded	10 00	
			Printing Membership Certificates,	48 25	
			Expenses of several Departments,		
			Superintendents, Art, Normal....	127 68	
			Printing circulars, abstracts of Re-		
			port, postage, etc	\$134 46	
			Expenses incurred by Secretary,		
			making arrangements for meet-		
			ing, letter heads, postal cards,		
			envelopes, official stamp, trunk		
			for documents, etc.....	152 37	
			Expenses incurred by Board of		
			Trustees, rent and care of depos-		
			itory, express charges, postage,		
			telegrams, official stamp, etc	90 10	
			Rent of safe in Deposit Co	14 00	
			Premiums and accrued interest		
			paid on account investments of		
			permanent funds	323 96	
			Four Life - Directorships trans-		
			ferred to permanent fund.....	\$400 00	
			Surplus funds of 1887 transferred		
			to permanent fund by Board of		
			Trustees	10,700 00	
					11,
			Reserved for completing distribu-		
			tion of volumes of 1887 to mem-		
			bers.....		
			Balance carried to account of 1888,		
			Total.....	\$19,	

Edwin C. Hewett, Treasurer, having rendered the several items of his account, and the same having been examined, the items compared with orders issued for the payment of approved bills, the undersigned hereby certify approval of this report for the year ending July 1, 1888.

N. A. CALKINS, *Chairman,* } *Board of Trustees N.E.A.*
Z. RICHARDS *Secretary,* }

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

The Board of Trustees present herewith their second annual report, showing the financial condition of the National Educational Association at the close of the year ending June 30, 1888.

At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, the amount of the permanent fund reported was four thousand four hundred and seventy-five dollars. Since that date there has been realized, by the payment of a matured note given by a life-director, the sum of one hundred dollars, thus making the amount of this fund four thousand five hundred and seventy-five dollars (\$4,575) prior to the additions made from the income of the meeting at Chicago in 1887.

Additions Made.—From July 1, 1887 to June 30, 1888, additions have been made to the permanent fund from the following sources, viz.:

Four life-directorships: Newton C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.; Chas. I. Parker, South Chicago, Ill.; Mary H. Hunt, Hyde Park, Mass.; L. W. Day, Cleveland, Ohio;—each \$100, making the sum of \$400.

Transfer of surplus funds of 1887, as per art. IV, sec. 10, of the Constitution, the sum of ten thousand seven hundred dollars (\$10,700). Total additions made, \$11,100.

Amount of Permanent Fund.—The present amount of the permanent fund is fifteen thousand six hundred and seventy-five dollars (\$15,675). This result is a full realization of the hope expressed in our last report.

Investments of Permanent Fund.—The permanent fund is now invested as follows, viz.:

In a first mortgage on real estate in Gambier, Ohio—rate of interest, 8 per cent.....	\$300
In a first mortgage on real estate in Providence, R. I.—rate of interest 6 per cent.....	3,000
In Kansas school-district bonds, interest payable in New York City—rate 7 per cent.....	2,000
In Kansas school-district bonds, interest payable in New York City—rate 6 per cent.....	10,375
Total.....	\$15,675

Interest and Securities.—The interest on the entire amount of school-district bonds is payable semi-annually, at a national bank in the city of New York; and the bonds are payable, on maturity, at the same place. The mortgages, bonds, and all securities belonging to the permanent fund, are deposited in the Nassau Safe Deposit Company of New York City.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

To the National Educational Association :

The Committee on Resolutions offers the following report :

Resolved, That the cordial thanks of the National Educational Association are hereby tendered to the State of California and to the citizens and teachers of San Francisco for their splendid hospitality; to the general and special committees connected with the work of the Association; to the officers of the general Association and of the several departments for their noble work in making preparations for the present session; to the press for its full and able reports of what has been said and done in the convention; to the railroad managements for reduced rates and the care they have taken in providing for the comfort of the teachers traveling over their several lines; to the President of the Association and the presiding officers of the departments for the courtesy and impartiality with which they have performed their duties; and to the citizens of Oakland for the beautiful badges of membership presented by them to the Association.

Resolved, That the Association returns special thanks to Ira G. Hoitt, F. M. Campbell, J. K. Wilson, Joseph O'Connor, James Denman, William White, John Swett, J. W. Anderson, Madison Babcock, and Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper for their untiring efforts to make this — what it has been — a great and delightful meeting of the Association.

Resolved, That we reaffirm the conviction of the Association as to the urgent necessity of temporary National aid to the cause of education in the South.

Resolved, That in consequence of the great bulk of the annual volume of Proceedings, the Association authorizes the Executive Committee to decide which of the papers presented at this session shall be printed in abstract and which in full.

Resolved, That a copy of the Annual Proceedings of the Association be sent to each of the hundred largest public libraries in the United States.

The Committee recommends the adoption of the following resolutions offered by Mr. Harris, of Massachusetts:

Resolved, That at the next meeting of the Association one of the sessions of the general body be set apart for hearing such papers on psychology and pedagogical observations as shall have been received and approved by the Executive Committee of this Association.

Resolved, That the President be and the same is hereby requested to appoint a committee of three to examine such contributions to psychology and pedagogy as may be received, and report the same to the Executive Committee with recommendations.

The committee recommends that the paper on printing for distribution an increased number of copies of the reports of the Bureau of Education, the paper on Military Training in Schools, the one on a Teachers' Home, and

the resolutions favoring the teaching of civics in the public schools, be referred to the Executive Committee of the Association for future action.

Respectfully submitted.

JOHN HANCOCK,
MARY E. NICHOLSON,
F. LOUIS SOLDAN,
JOHN SWETT,
JEROME ALLEN,
Committee.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS, KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

Whereas, All educational friends and workers have enjoyed the unspeakable pleasure and profit afforded by the beautiful and valuable exhibits of our Eastern friends; and

Whereas, Some of these Eastern friends have generously donated portions of this valuable work to us: therefore,

Resolved, That we, the California recipients, tender our deep and heartfelt thanks and appreciation to Col. Francis W. Parker, the distinguished Principal of the Cook County Normal School, and to the deft and accomplished artisans of that school, for their beautiful and valuable gifts.

Resolved, That the same deep and heartfelt thanks and appreciation are tendered to Miss M. C. McCulloch, the indefatigable Superintendent of the St. Louis Kindergartens, for the superb work which the facile and well-instructed little workers have brought out to leave with us here by the Pacific sea. These lovely gifts from these generous hearts shall serve as links to bind us all the more closely to the workers across the Continent.

Resolved, That the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association has heard with great pride and pleasure of the progress made in Kindergarten work by our far-away friends in Nova Scotia and also in New Zealand; that distance does not dampen our ardor and interest in their great and noble work; that we send them warmest greetings and clasp hands with them in the fervid determination to go forward in laying solid foundations of education on the principles laid down by the Froebel system of development.

Whereas, After fifteen years of earnest, faithful work in this country, it has been practically demonstrated that the Kindergarten is the best system for securing the equal and simultaneous growth of every faculty, and that only in this way can the highest type of humanity be reached: therefore,

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Association that the system known as the "*Froebel Kindergarten System*" should become the only true fundamental basis and an integral part of the Public School System, and that we urge its speedy incorporation therein.

Whereas, The Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association, in its extensive work among the neglected children, having had a large and heart-rending experience of the ignorance, poverty, sin and crime,

that are the immediate results of intemperance, and also having noted with deep regret the deleterious effects from the use of tobacco: therefore,

Resolved, That we pledge our efforts for the enforcement of laws against selling intoxicating liquors and tobacco to minors.

Resolved, That the little heroic philanthropist, the Pundita Ramabai, in her noble efforts to lift up the down-trodden women of her native land, has the warmest sympathy and prayers of the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association; and we will gladly do what we can to further her heaven-inspired work. Through her knowledge of kindergarten principles we believe she will be enabled to build on the deep foundations to be laid in childhood culture.

Resolved, That the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association sends warmest greetings to Miss Elizabeth Peabody, the founder of American Kindergartens, whom we all hold in tender affection and reverent regard. We rejoice with her in that she has lived to see the day when the work for which she so patiently and heroically toiled for long years, has come into its blossoming-time, and is now being so universally recognized as the foundation on which the true educational structure must rest. Multitudes rise up to call her blessed.

Resolved, That we also send warmest greetings to our pioneer California co-worker and friend, Miss Emma Marwedel, whose genius, self-sacrifice and devotion have wrought out such valuable educational achievements for the kindergarten cause. Her recent excellent and practical work on "Conscious Motherhood," so full of wise thought and suggestion, we recommend to every household, and we await with eager expectancy the publication of her unique and valuable Circular System of Drawing, which is bound to mark an epoch in Kindergarten education.

Resolved, That we heartily indorse the new magazine recently established in Chicago, entitled "*The Kindergarten*," and we recommend it to every teacher and household as the exponent of the best and most advanced thought in Kindergarten work.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association are hereby tendered to the Local Executive Committee and to other coöperating committees for their abounding courtesy and kindness, and for the perfection and beauty of all their arrangements; to the officers of the various governmental and public institutions for many kind attentions; to the daily press and the Associated Press for their full, favorable and most interesting reports; to the railroads and different transportation companies for the facilities which made this Association possible in the far West; and to the genial, noble-hearted citizens of San Francisco for the cordial, courteous and charming hospitality which has made every day a song, and has contributed towards making this meeting of the National Teachers' Association one of the most memorable and delightful in all its history.

ADDRESSES, PAPERS
AND
DISCUSSIONS
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,
AND ITS
DEPARTMENTS.

1888.

OPENING SESSION.*

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

HON. R. W. WATERMAN, GOVERNOR OF CALIFORNIA.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association, and Fellow-Citizens: It gives me great satisfaction and pleasure to be with you on this occasion. This is a grand assemblage, and one before which anyone might feel proud to stand. I desire to express my gratification that you have come to California to hold your annual session. We pride ourselves in California as being in possession of the very best public school system vouchsafed any State, which you have probably already seen or will see for yourselves before you return to your homes. Your visit to California will mark an era in the history of the State. Whatever may be to our advantage, or whatever we may lack, if anything, will be discussed impartially by men and women of brains, intelligence and experience, and in such hands I am for one perfectly willing to leave our case. You are welcome here, thrice cordially welcome to California, and I hope your visit will be as agreeable and pleasurable to yourselves as it is to the State generally. As the Governor of the State, and speaking in behalf of the people I have the honor to represent, I desire to thank State Superintendent Hoitt and those associated with him, for the great energy he and they have displayed in bringing this grand and honorable assemblage to our shores; and to those composing it I again say, "Welcome to California."

HON. E. P. POND, MAYOR OF SAN FRANCISCO.

Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen: It is my pleasant privilege and honor on behalf of the citizens of San Francisco to tender to you a very kindly greeting, and to welcome you to this our city, in this the annual meeting of your Association.

Coming as you have from the varied sections of our common country, from the Atlantic shores, from the hills and dales, the mountains and the plains lying between these extremes, we greet you with outstretched arms, on the shores of the Pacific. Traversing as many of you have, the vast expanse of a great continent, coming from the lands of our fathers, where the days of our youth were spent,—and of those early associations we still have fond recollections,—you are doubly welcome to our hearts and homes.

*The addresses by Prof. Cook and Commissioner Dawson are printed from manuscript. Others are as reported by stenographer.

The aims and objects for which you are assembled are such as excite the deepest interest in the hearts of all our citizens. Coming together as you have in the interest of the education of the youth of our country, moral, physical, and intellectual, equipped as you are by long study and experience, we greet you as a part of that grander army—that army which is destined to exert its influence in the advance of our great country in its great future. Having so deep an interest in this great and noble calling and supported by so much culture and intelligence, you cannot fail, it seems to me, to arrive at the most practical solution of the question as to how best to educate our youth to the highest usefulness, happiness and citizenship. As it has often been said, the more intelligent the people, the more just and efficient will be their laws, the greater the protection to the lives and liberties of the people.

Your heroic devotion to this great cause commends you to the greeting and warm friendship of all our citizens. You are welcome to California, welcome to San Francisco, and may your stay be long and pleasant, and may your labors be so relieved by recreation and association with friends, both old and new, that when you return to your homes you shall carry with you nothing but fond recollections and memories of your visit to California and San Francisco.

IRA G. HOITT, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, CALIFORNIA.

Ladies and Gentlemen: As the head of the Department of Public Instruction of California, I bid you a welcome, on behalf of the teachers and school officers of California, to what we believe to be the best country that God's glorious sun ever shone upon. We bid you welcome to all the pleasures which have been prepared for you, and to the best that California affords. To-night the character-builders of the Pacific are glad to clasp hands across the Sierras with the character-builders of the Atlantic, to do what we may to elevate the character of teaching in the United States.

In arbitrary governments the education of the masses is considered of little consequence; but in this country the people are sovereign, and any beardless boy is liable to reach the presidential chair. It is important, then, that we train our boys and our girls to love our country, so that the old flag shall have its folds broad enough and a power behind it strong enough to protect every American citizen in whatever part of the globe that flag is to float.

Again I say, to all the glories of our State, and to our hearts as well, we bid you welcome, with such cheer as no tongue hath power to tell.

“A little while abide with us,
And when you homeward go,
May lingering memories of us and ours
Be sweet, and ever flow.”

JAMES W. ANDERSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO.

Fellow-Citizens: This vast concourse speaks louder welcome to the teachers from the East, to those who have come to visit our shores, than any words that human tongue could utter. California has had many occasions for rejoicing, having a double decade of years ago a concourse assembled in this city to celebrate the driving of the last spike in that great chain of steel which united the great East to the great West, which made it possible for us to welcome this noble army of educators to our shores.

On your behalf, on behalf of the 800 teachers of San Francisco, we bid the Eastern teachers a most cordial welcome to our homes, to our hearts, to —everything.

This is a wonderfully important epoch in the history of San Francisco, as well as in the history of the State. To-night, then, we do well to honor those who have crossed the Continent to do honor to us by visiting the city. We welcome you, teachers of the East; we welcome you, teachers of the North; we welcome you, teachers of the South—we welcome you to everything in California. His Excellency has offered you the freedom of the State; Mayor Pond has given you the hospitality and the freedom of the city; and if you don't enjoy it all it will be your fault, not ours. Again, on behalf of these teachers, we bid you a most cordial welcome. All we ask is, that when you go back you will tell the people how we tried to make you welcome. If we have failed in aught, it is not the fault of our hearts. We have the desire to make your stay here a pleasant dream. Tell them at your homes that we gave you a California welcome, which has a "come again" in the "good-bye."

PROFESSOR ALBERT S. COOK, PRESIDENT OF THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association: The measure of our welcome is not easily filled. Though it needs no additional voice to proclaim it, yet perhaps you will not be displeased at its repetition from the teachers of the State as a whole. Gathered from beyond the snows of Shasta at the north, and from beyond the smiling bay of San Diego at the south, they have delivered me their mandate to speak for them on this occasion, and to declare their satisfaction and pleasure at seeing the National Educational Association in their midst.

We bid you welcome as brothers and sisters, as comrades and fellow-laborers. We know by experience your toils and your discouragements, the oppression of routine, the aching head, the weary brain, the overtaxed heart, the cry for escape from a seeming thralldom.

We know the weariness of teaching over and over again the same elementary subjects, the vexatiousness of pupils, the unreasonableness of parents, the apathy of school-boards. A thousand times we have chafed under

it all, and for the moment wished ourselves in any profession but this. We have submitted to be called pedagogues and school-marms, and have endured it with the best grace we could command. People have shunned us because we used better grammar than they, or looked up to us with comical reverence, or scornfully declared that we knew nothing of practical matters. We, too, have been snubbed, our opinions ignored, and we ourselves set aside in calm disregard of remonstrance and protest. We are used to these things, and so are you; and therefore, in view of common hardships, and one might be pardoned for saying common perils, we love you and welcome you. And, like you also, we know something of the teacher's rewards and the teacher's triumphs. We have seen the kindling eye and the flushed cheek, the awakening of manly resolve and of unselfish ambition. We have beheld growing intelligence animate the clay of stolid features, and the whole countenance become illumined and chastened by the radiance of the soul. In rare moments we have tasted the exaltation and fine rapture of a Pygmalion when his Galatea first breathed a tremulous sigh that perceptibly stirred the folds of her garments, and at length stepped forth in peerless beauty, a living soul. The artist's creative thrill was ours, and we knew we had not lived in vain. Because we have shared this purest of pleasures with you, we love you and welcome you.

Yet we greet you not only in the name of common experiences, but also of common purposes. Your polar star is ours, and we are steering for the self-same port. Together we aim at the conservation of American liberties, a higher standard of American citizenship, the ends of universal justice, the evolution of a nobler humanity. Our field is limited only by the ever-expanding possibilities of the human spirit. We chase the same flying but ever-attractive phantom of Hope, luring us on with the prospect of an earth whence ignorance shall be banished, and wherein righteousness shall eternally dwell. We rejoice that, though often deceived, we still press onward, not as yet disillusioned, unashamed of our folly, and victorious in our defeat. In this we recognize with you, our hearts go out to you, and we give you greeting.

We hail your coming, moreover, because, though engaged in the same enterprise with yourselves, we have much to learn from you. We are joyfully aware of all your intellectual and moral victories at the East; all the splendid endowments of instruction and research, University, College, Normal School, system of education; the glories of your Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Amherst, University of Michigan, University of Virginia, and the long roll of scarcely less celebrated names; your land grants for higher education in the galaxy of sister States which constitute the great Northwest; the philosophical pedagogies of your Harris and your Stanley Hall. If, in turn, our exuberant youthfulness should impel us to boast, we should refer to our Lick Observatory, whence gazes out upon the heavens the strongest eye yet *framed by mortal hands* to pierce the abysmal unknown of space; to our

veterans of Science, the pupil of Agassiz, with his no less celebrated brother and peer, formerly President of our State University; to the munificence of our legislators, ever ready to respond to the calls of physical science and the liberal arts; to that tribute to the genius of civilization, by which a bereaved father has commemorated a beloved son in a monument more imperishable than bronze or granite. Here, we should predict, is to be the favorite home of Art on this Continent, beneath skies which rival those of Italy and Spain, and inspired by scenery such as that amid which Theocritus sang the loves of Daphnis and Menalcas, or Raphael threw upon the canvas his glowing and serene creations, or Phidias coerced the stubborn marble into immortal beauty. We should descant with liberal tongue upon our climatic, sanitary, and agricultural advantages; or, turning from these to literary topics, should remind you that this is the land of Ramona and The Luck of Roaring Camp, a land already rich in romantic and chivalrous suggestion; that here labored the missionaries of the Cross, Salvatierra in Lower, and Junipero in Upper California; that here arose the picturesque Missions, whose bells from their ordered coigns of vantage called to worship the dusky children of the soil; that upon our peaks the adventurous Fremont planted the banner of the Union; and that here Starr King poured forth the floods of mellow and resistless eloquence which kept men's eyes fixed upon that banner, while it attuned their hearts to the rhythm of Law, and the harmonies of concordant States.

But from dwelling upon these themes, however grateful to local pride, we forbear. We prefer to dwell upon your real superiorities, as of those appertaining to an older and riper civilization; to seek counsel of you as to how we may best solve the many and grave problems that confront us; and to welcome you, not merely as teachers, not merely as the teachers of the whole country, but as our teachers.

RESPONSES TO THE ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Ladies and Gentlemen: We have listened to your greetings and your welcome of the National Educational Association as it celebrates its thirty-first anniversary, by your invitation, on the shores of the Pacific. We have met in the North, in the East and in the South, but not until to-day had we the right to the word NATIONAL engraved upon our seal. Three thousand miles from its birthplace our Association presents to you to-night, ripe and beautiful in their age, some of the very school-masters who gathered in the little hall in Philadelphia in 1857, to organize a movement for the improvement of the educational interests of our land. With these tried and true old school-masters, and with our venerable first President, who is

now just past his sixtieth year in the school-room, we introduce to you a thousand younger men, as loyal and valiant in the profession as their elders. More than this, and perhaps more to your pleasure, we introduce to you to-night five thousand of the noblest women on earth—teachers in the common schools of America—women upon whom depends, more than upon the outcome of all the political issues of the day, the prosperity of our Government and our great country.

We have come to California not only for professional contact and improvement, but for inspection and recreation. It may not be improper for me to remark in passing, to the bachelors of the Coast, that we have no intention of leaving any of our girls behind when we return. We need them at home. It is our purpose that hundreds of thousands of children of this land shall, ere the snow begins to fall, learn of California, the golden State of the Western frontier, not as heretofore from books, but from the mouths of living teachers. The charms of this land, of its fruits and flowers, shall be so vividly portrayed in ten thousand school-rooms, that your fair land and our whole country shall be understood even by the child. That banner which we have seen waving from tower and mountain-peak all along our journey from the Atlantic and from the Gulf, and which gladdens our eyes, in this land of yours, is the symbol of the devotion and patriotism of the teacher.

We are an organized band of men and women associated, not for the purpose of strikes, unions, or trusts, but for furthering what we believe to be the first and greatest interest of our common country—the strengthening of its educational forces.

Our meeting with you for a few days will be full of interest, and we trust it will be of service to you. At its close we mean to abide a time among you, visiting your beautiful parks, cities, towns, and mountains; and, when we return, take back with us such memories of this State as shall compel you to make provision for our return, many of us, as permanent residents in this beautiful land of the setting sun.

THE SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Mr. President, Members of the National Educational Association, and Citizens of California: There is an old saying which runs somewhat in this way: That a man is always eloquent in what he knows. It would be very pleasant to me, and only just to our friends upon the Coast who have labored so long and so earnestly for the success of this meeting, to have that old saying made good to-night. They pledged themselves magnificently at the outset, pledged themselves as I believe no community in the history of this Association ever before pledged itself. In the three weeks and more during which I have gone in and out among our good friends here, I have come to *know and to value their resources and their industry.* We have met here *a welcome which shows that they have fulfilled their pledges to the letter, to*

the dotting of an "i" and the crossing of a "t." Just as far as lay in the power of finite beings under mortal limitations, these gentlemen who invited us here have accomplished all that they promised.

I know their labors of love, their earnestness and their activity. When a State Superintendent of Instruction willingly adds to the laborious duties of his office, those connected with the position of local chief in matters of this kind; when a City Superintendent gives a full half-year of his time willingly and cheerfully to forward such a work, with untiring zeal for our cause; when an Assistant City Superintendent sits at his desk for twelve consecutive hours for each of many consecutive days, days that run into weeks, in order that he may provide every stranger in the city with a pleasant temporary home; when the manager of a great banking-house drops his business and stands ready hour after hour to extend the right hand of fellowship with cordial greeting, offering the freedom of the city to its thronging guests; when the vast army of local teachers, men and women, magnificent in their enterprise, forgetting all the weariness of the year that is closed, volunteer for "sixty days or the war"—any service, anywhere; when all these untiring workers, backed by the open-handed merchants of this cosmopolitan city and of its beautiful suburbs, give their time, their strength, their means, in this unstinted way, with no thought of reward other than that which would be found in the pleasure and comfort of their guests, not only is the pleasure and gratitude of these guests assured, but it is high time for those who croak about the material tendencies of the age, and declaim about the increasing coldness and selfishness of the day, to cover themselves with sackcloth and ashes and turn their faces to the wall.

I saw a statement in one of the city papers not long ago, a very original and striking statement, to the effect that "The schoolmaster is abroad." With all due deference to these recognized guardians of our liberties—these guardians one-half of whom are always squarely pitted against the other half, yet none of whom can ever possibly be wrong—with all due deference I beg leave to correct this assertion. If I go to the house of my brother, my brother who went West to grow up with the country and whom I have not seen for many years, yet who is my brother still, who looks with me ever towards the dawning light upon the mountain-tops, and whose every heart-throb is in unison with my own, and he greets me on the threshold with open arms, with the old light in his eye and the old ring in his voice, throws open every room from cellar to attic and every door from kitchen to closet and tells me that all is mine, I am not abroad and in a strange land, but I am at home. So to-night from the East and what was once the West, from the North and the South, from center and from circumference, from spokes, felloes and tire as well as from "The Hub," sir, we are all *at home*; and at home as we never were before.

I heard a new-comer, and it was a very new-comer, recently remark that the *Californians were rather behind the times*. That was a true statement.

The Californians are not less than fifty years behind the times. They are so far behind the times that I have seen a gripman actually check the speed of his car to permit a lady to pass in front without unnecessary haste. He might have much more easily run her down as they do in Chicago, or at least sadly frightened her as they do in New York. They are so far behind the times, that you can ask the busiest man on the street for information and it will be given cheerfully, with the chances that he will go a block out of his way to be sure you make no mistake. They are so far behind the times that they are actually not ashamed to disclose emotional natures, and manifest a little genuine enthusiasm. They love their royal flowers and their bright skies and their magnificent waters, and talk about them with a frankness that is simply charming and captivating. They are so far behind the times that they actually believe still—now think of it, “so brutally narrow and so beastly provincial, doncherknew,”—that they actually believe that theirs is a goodly land, that they believe in America, in American ideas, in American school systems, in America’s most glorious form of government, and in American destiny. They actually still love the old flag, and they bring it out on all occasions, and their hearts throb fast and their eyes grow dim as its folds float above them in the soft Pacific breeze.

Yes, my friends, here upon this Pacific Coast you will find all the old homely virtues, hospitality, enthusiasm, courtesy, patriotism—all these practiced in the old homely way; and because of all this we shall turn our faces sadly toward the East again, and carry to our homes most delightful and most tender memories of our visit to the Golden Gate.

WILLIAM E. SHELDON, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: This is an age of wonders. When I left the home of the Pilgrims, the soil of the Puritans, the shadow of Bunker Hill Monument, the vision of Lexington, and all the surroundings of antiquity, representing a civilization of two hundred and fifty years, I confidently expected to come into this Western land by the Golden Gate, and find myself a stranger. But no. Indeed, I find here the most intensified Yankees I ever saw in the world. Every man and every woman I meet is but a type of that vast civilization that began more than two hundred and fifty years ago and has been moving westward, until in the State Superintendent, in the President of the College, in the merchant, in every walk and position in life, I find, as I say, a Yankee so enthusiastic, so grand and glorious in his hopes and aims, that I feel entirely at home—except that here he is, as the poet would say, “as modest as a violet.” He was never known on this coast—this modern Yankee—to boast of anything. He can look from the heights of the Sierras, he can go down the slopes and visit the vineyards, he can see the fruit growing, he can even see the blush *on the peach*. His modesty is so great that he out-blushes the peach. *These are the types of man produced by this ancient civilization which I*

represent when transplanted to the Pacific coast. One of my missions here is to bear from the grandmothers, the grandfathers, the mothers and the fathers of the East a greeting to all these, their wandering children.

Horace Greeley said to the young man of the East, "Go West," and he came. He brought with him pluck, he brought with him the school, he brought with him the home, he brought with him the music that gives harmony in our souls to-night, East and West, North and South. He brought with him the patriotism of Starr King, who wandered up and down these valleys and over these hills until this Western land was consecrated to everlasting freedom for the Union and all it represents. Following him came the schools, and the teachers who think and talk and teach in this State of the Golden Gate to-day. These are all the products of Yankeedom. We speak of them modestly. We are modest men down East. We are characterized as having been crystalized into the hub of the wheel. For the last few years, I have been following the spokes that go out from this central hub of this wheel and I have found many good "*felloes*" at the end; and they are well *tired*. They have gone over these hills in the cable car. They have gone into these mines with the shovel. They have gone into these river basins with the pan, and they have taken the metallic wealth out of this land. They have developed agriculture in this Western country so that it smiles like a garden of paradise. You will not be surprised when I tell you that the very champagne of this air has so exhilarated me, that while I am regarded at home as an old fossil, here I am the youngest of the crowd.

I represent the drift period, however, and if I can get my wife and children to be of the same mind, just as likely as not I shall drift back into your arms, to be embraced by you of the Golden Gate, here to enjoy that civilization which I admire—intensified, enthusiastic Yankeedom everywhere. Why, the eloquence of the hills of Colorado, the breadth and depth and thundering eloquence of the plains of Kansas, are other types of this same out-breaking civilization, that came originally, over the mountains, and by the Indian trails, to these shores.

And now seriously, friends, this is not due to us who have stayed behind; it is due to your enterprise, due to your persistency, and to your magnanimity in the right, in the development of this country. The question has come to me as I look over this vast audience to-night, Where are you going next? What is to become of those who want to go west from here? Why, you are as thick as bees in the heavy grain now, and as busy, and many of those I see before me, I think, are quite as sweet.

I bring you friendship and greetings from the eastern shore of this great country.

N. H. R. DAWSON, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: I deem it a distinguished honor to have been invited to take part in this welcome to the noble men and women who have devoted their lives to the cause of education.

It is indeed an eventful occasion in your history, and one long to be remembered.

The scene is full of inspiration. This grand and enthusiastic audience, the wealth of music and song, of art and eloquence, which have been invoked, conspire to make this ovation a splendid success, and attest the deep interest you have taken in the great Educational Congress that has assembled in your city. Its representatives have been received with a welcome and entertained with a hospitality that could nowhere else have been surpassed.

The marvelous growth of the Pacific Slope is one of the wonderful developments of the century. When the soil of this part of the continent was first pressed by the foot of American adventure, "the poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling," alone could have foreseen the grand revelations of the present, and only his pen have given to "airy nothing a local habitation and a name" upon these uninviting and inhospitable shores. When touched by the hand of American enterprise, California expanded as did the countries of the Ancient World under the slower influences of Greek and Roman culture and civilization.

Who would then have dreamed that within less than half a century, a State clothed with all the functions and power of well-ordered government, with a population of near two millions, would be established upon this coast; and a city rapidly overtaking her sisters in the race of wealth and prosperity — matchless in the splendor and success of her municipal career — would be enthroned here upon the Pacific ocean, opening wide her Golden Gate to the fleets and commerce of the world.

Your material progress has indeed been unexampled in the history of the world. Where boundless plains extended to the horizon, with none of the footprints of civilization, now the hills and valleys are filled with a teeming population; towns and cities resound with the hum of American industries, and flocks and herds roam over a thousand green pastures. Science has been laid under tribute to discover and utilize the minerals that underlie your mountains and enrich your streams. The genius of man has scaled the mountains with systems of transcontinental railways, and the rivers have been directed into new courses, irrigating countless fields of fruit and grain. Orchards rivaling the gardens of the Hesperides, with their harvests of golden fruit, and vineyards excelling the grapes of Eshcol, dot every landscape, while fertile fields bending under their weight of grain, and luxurious homes, are seen everywhere in this land of beauty and loveliness,

—— "the land where the lemon trees bloom,
Where the gold orange glows in the deep thicket's gloom,
Where a wind ever soft from the blue heaven blows,
And the groves are of laurel, and myrtle, and rose."

The climate is so temperate and delicious, that man finds here the equivalent of the paradise, redolent with the perfume and odor of flowers and

spices, from which the primal pair were exiled. Following the divine spark that was implanted in him, man has electrified and converted the desert into an oasis—the wilderness, where the savage roamed in his wild freedom, into a smiling world of industry and wealth, and to-day the States of the Pacific, instinct with the throbs of civilization and commerce, are looking towards the distant Occident for a full realization of their possibilities and hopes.

Above this teeming and breathing world of progress, the altars of the living God, who holds in the hollow of His hand the heavens and the earth, as they revolve in their orbits, look out upon the busy scene, and proclaim the truths and beatitudes of the Gospel.

Education has not been distanced in this race of progress and enterprise. In the midst of this empire of wealth and usefulness, alongside of these oracles of Religion, she has occupied the inviting field, and has not been slow to conquer and possess herself of the advantages that have been so lavishly strewed in her path. A beneficent government, in providing protection for the persons and property of its citizens, has not been unmindful of its duty to educate and elevate the people, and has provided for their intellectual wants with a liberal hand. Common schools have been established in every township and hamlet; academies are found in every village; colleges and seminaries open their halls in every city, inviting those who are thirsty to drink from the streams of philosophy and science which flow within their classic precincts. Your State University, at Berkeley, with its affiliated schools in this city; the University of Southern California at Los Angeles; the magnificent endowment and superb equipment of the Lick Observatory; the great and unique scientific library established and supported by Adolph Sutro, are some of the wonders of the educational system and growth which have attracted the attention of the world.

Private beneficence has not been slow to supplement with its aid and encouragement the system of public education which has been provided by the State and Federal governments. Only recently one of your distinguished citizens and statesmen, commemorating his paternal grief with more than the royal munificence of the august patron of Roman literature and art, has founded and endowed, at Palo Alto, a University that will equal in usefulness those grand schools of learning and thought which have made England the mother of American law and civilization. Let us hope that his generous recognition of the claims of education upon the wealthy classes will be followed and imitated; and that soon at the city of Washington, the political heart of the Union, a University, combining, in its system of schools, civil and political education, with the highest branches of scientific study, and instruction in the art of teaching, will be founded to dispense its blessings to the youth of the whole country.

These are some of the inviting features of the rich repast to which we have been invited—the outlines of the beautiful picture upon which we gaze with untold pleasure and admiration—which has given California

no secondary place in that galaxy of States which has risen upon the Continent in the first century of American independence.

Is our star of empire to go no farther in its unexampled march? Has a voice spoken to the swelling tides of American progress and civilization, and said: "Hitherto shalt thou come, but no further; and here shall thy proud waves be stayed"?

The womb of the future conceals the revelation and the answer to this pregnant question. Let us trust with implicit faith that this great Republic in the fullness of her age will attain the grand destiny that has been promised in her youth, and that centuries of peace and prosperity are to bless and magnify her boundless national career; that the sun in sinking beneath the waves beyond the bright ocean, will forever rise upon a land of free and happy people, upon a union of coëqual States, with "a star for every State and a State for every star," emblazoned upon its flag and shining in its constellation.

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F. M. CAMPBELL, VICE-PRESIDENT FOR CALIFORNIA.

Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association: I believe I recognize quite as well as anyone can that there is existing no possible necessity, and barely an excuse, for this part of the programme. The words of cheer, of greeting, and of welcome have been said. We hope during the time you shall be with us to prove to you that those words are honest and sincere.

We have been listening to an expression of generous response to these welcoming words, and we have received them in the same spirit. We all feel that we want you to receive and carry with you the expression of our heartfelt welcome. Nothing therefore now remains for me to do except to say that these remarks are closed.

I desire to say just a word, however, expressing our thanks to those citizens of San Francisco and the adjoining country who have come forward to help the members of the Executive Committee in this undertaking; and I do now on behalf of the Executive Committee thank the gentlemen and ladies of San Francisco and of the surrounding country for the hospitable manner and the generous way in which they have so largely contributed to give this meeting whatever success it may have.

I think too much of this audience to extend these remarks and keep you any longer from the closing music by the chorus, the orchestra and the audience. I thank you heartily.

THEME: LITERATURE IN THE READING COURSES OF THE
COMMON SCHOOLS.

THE PLACE OF LITERATURE IN COMMON-SCHOOL EDU-
CATION.

HORACE E. SCUDDER, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

When Thor, in the Scandinavian story, was trying conclusions with the giants, he was bidden lift a cat which stood before him. He stooped, grasped the cat, and tried to raise it from the ground. The higher he lifted, the more the cat stretched, still clinging with its claws to the earth. When, with gigantic effort, Thor stood erect, he had not yet disengaged the creature.

"Wonder not," said Utgard Loke, "that you are not able to lift the cat. It was Jormundgarda herself, the great serpent that binds the world."

The fable comes to my mind as I ponder the subject assigned to me at this meeting,—*The Place of Literature in Common-School Education*. Literature, Common Schools, Education—these are familiar words; yet when we trace their roots in the soil of human thought, we find them penetrating great depths and clutching at the very foundations of human order. We speak of Common Schools, and our minds run on to the principle of community which underlies our political ideals. We brood over Literature, and are quickened by the spirit which aspires from the free thought of humanity. We start with a great company in pursuit of the secret of Education, and find ourselves at last alone with God.

It is not unreasonable, therefore, that we should approach our subject by that road which has the guide-posts of history to mark its course. A national association is bound to consider themes in their national aspect, and the historic method, with its constant suggestion of permanence of type and development of form, has a prime advantage when applied to national topics, since the nation at every stage of its progress has consciousness of identity with antecedent life.

In establishing a community of experience between our later and our earlier conditions, we are driven to disregard those distinctions, incident to change, which are apt to have importance in our eyes, and to seek for the fundamental unity. The men and women of the Thirteen Colonies, who proved equal to the task of writing out the formularies of an independent nation, were trained in schools which look narrow and low-studded beside the elaborately equipped buildings of our later day. They had no clay models of continents, yet somehow they learned the art of moulding the institutions of a free people. They were ignorant of the refinements of the

phonic method or the syllabic method, yet they were found afterward quite expert in reading between the lines of French diplomacy. Improvements in method may not draw us away from a contemplation of those essentials of education which survive methods.

The motive which urged our fathers to the establishment of schools was professedly drawn from religion; the motive which impels us to-day is professedly drawn from politics. If you could have asked John Cotton why it was well that the children of Massachusetts Bay should be sent to school, his reply would have been, that they might learn to fear God. If you ask yourselves why the commonwealth provides common schools, the answer is, that the children may become good citizens. In the former case the conception of religion was bound up with the conception of a particular ecclesiastical order; in the latter, the conception of politics is limited by the special form of society in which it has play. The former anticipated the political conception, for the germ of a free State lay imbedded in the combined theocratic and commercial company; the latter has not lost the religious conception, for it guards jealously the vested rights of religious bodies. In both cases the human mind is seen struggling toward a larger liberty.

The common schools thus epitomize the nation. They reflect the prevailing thought of the people; they embody its ideal. If we would measure the spiritual force of the national mind at any one time, we must examine the contents of the common schools, for as there comes a moment in the life of every father when he is less eager for himself and more concerned for his child's fortune, so the hope, the forecast, the precipitation of ideals in the whole people is to be looked for in the form which popular education takes. The stock-market is not a more delicate register of the financial pulse than is the common school of the national conscience. Consider along what lines educational thought is running, and you will discern on what great circles the nation is sailing. Observe the criticism of a prevalent system, and you will touch the national life at its most sensitive nerve. The counter-currents as well as the currents of popular will may be estimated by this gauge.

It is not without significance that you chose for your leading theme last year Industrial Education, and that this year you have taken up The Place of Literature. The two subjects indicate the two lines along which educational thought is moving, and they correspond to the two dominant fields of national endeavor. Once an aristocracy, freed from the conditions of its origin but retaining its native properties, ruled in this country. Its authority was enforced by religious sanctions and supported by the power of the English State. But it had also within itself and all about it a democratic life which expanded until it burst the bands that constrained it, broke up so much of the old order as could not serve its purpose, shaped to itself a new form marvelously wrought from the old material, and an organization of government stood, compact and ductile, itself to be tried before the bar of humanity.

The revolution which sundered the formal relations of the colonies to England was more emphatically the evolution of a free people from the antecedent condition of a people in tutelage; the aristocratic, paternal idea of government was slowly to give way before the democratic idea of a nation living under the reign of law and choosing the administrators of its order. The complete transition has not yet been made. There is not yet a political consciousness which fulfills the sketch of national order contained in the written constitutions. We are still under the control of ideas which lie imbedded in the literature, the laws, the traditions of the English-speaking race, but we are also more or less aware of the growth of political consciousness toward the larger ideal.

The dramatic action of a revolutionary war brings change forcibly to our attention, but we know very well that change is in silence as well as in thunder. The earthquake opens a fissure in a moment, and we fancy that, having done his work, the giant sleeps again for a hundred years; but our reasonable knowledge shows us that this whole earth of ours palpitates with life, and that life is wakefulness, change, energy. Thus, we cannot extend the horizon of our thought at this time without being aware that this new democratic order in which we are living, and whose centennial birth-day we have celebrated with gun and flag and speech and show, is passing through changes which, whether normal or cataclysmal, shall one day offer to the historian the opportunity of saying: The old order has passed, the new has come.

We know that the hands which are nervously pulling at the stones of our political edifice are hands that are knotted with hopeless toil, but we know also that the hands which built and the hands which sustain our political order are brown and strong with purposeful labor. We do not fear the outcome, but we see clearly that the social problems which confront us concern the most elemental conditions of society, and that the relations of labor to well-being are to determine the final issue. Therefore in this hour of its coming struggle the nation looks to its schools, and says: Here shall we make our stand, cast up our entrenchments, and be ready to meet the enemy.

The danger which threatens the nation is twofold in manifestation, but single in spirit. The defense which we are setting up in our schools is likewise twofold, but may be referred to a single purpose. The cry of Labor in Poverty is for a share in the good things of life, but we whose ears are attuned to finer sounds may detect in the cry a more penetrating note. Legion, cutting himself with stones and rushing famished into the haunts of men, recognized the face of the Son of God; and Labor in Poverty, desperate in its mood, muttering at established order, still wards off the light which it sees in the face of righteousness and pity. The nation that looks upon this devil-possession is conscious that its own highest life is not in bread alone, but in every word which proceedeth out of the mouth of God. The sight of material prosperity which has so wrought upon and inflamed Labor in

Poverty has likewise struck upon the conscience of the nation, and has caused that note of alarm which is heard in private talk, in journals, in books, from the platform, and from the pulpit.

For the peril which springs from an anarchic force outside of the true democratic order is accompanied by the peril which arises from the more insidious, disintegrating force of disbelief resident in every part of the body politic. When a man loses belief in any higher good than his own personal comfort, the deterioration of his nature goes on rapidly. When a nation loses faith in its ideals, turns its back on its own history, refuses to believe in its divine origin, its divine order, its divine end, shuts its eyes to the goal of history, sneers at sacrifice and worships worldly success, then that nation is laying itself open to a more sure loss of liberty than could possibly result from exposure to outside attack.

The protest of the spiritual man against the tyranny of materialism takes various forms. Now it is a glorification of plain living and high thinking; now an appeal to college and university for exact philosophy and an intellectual survey of life; now a demand for the establishment of schools of art and for funds in the aid of students of art and for the endowment of research; now a vigorous movement on the part of the churches to extend their domain; and now a distinct call for a closer union between the elementary schools and the church. The voice raised by the demand of men for something more satisfying than bread is penetrating rather than loud, deep rather than vociferous. It is answered in part by the tribute which material prosperity is paying. In the immediate neighborhood men hear the clink of the mason's trowel and the sound of the hammer, but to the ear and the eye of the imagination there are rising all over the land, as if in the building of dreams, multitudes of fair structures sacred to scholarship, to letters, to art, and to religion. Not in the politic votes of legislatures so much as in the free gift of men and women everywhere is the establishment of universities, colleges, schools of art and science, expeditions to Greece and Egypt, traveling scholarships, public libraries, churches and church institutions. The uncounted gold that is poured into the treasury of the temple has upon it the image and superscription of Cæsar, but is transmuted by the alchemy of consecration into a more precious metal, stamped with divine emblems. Materialism has many forms of expression; spiritual life is also varied in its manifestation. Nevertheless, as the grossest, most exclusive form of materialism is in the slavery of the soul to the senses, and the deliberate shutting out of the spiritual in our life always tends to the enthronement of the lower self, so the finest, most unimpeded expression of the spiritual nature is in conscious communion with God; to this the exercise of our higher faculties tends, and we measure the force of spiritual influences by their capacity to give wings to the soul, to set it free from the control of meaner, baser appetites, and to give the unseen supremacy over the seen.

I repeat that the two leading activities of the national conscience at this hour regard the just relations of labor to wealth and the superiority of the spiritual to the material, and that this double activity is mirrored in the double pressure upon our schools; that on one side the axe, the hammer, the saw, the file, the pencil, and the needle are thrust into the child's hand; on the other, literature in its purest, noblest form seeks an entrance to the soul through the eye and the ear of the child. I repeat also that great as is the apparent distance between our present school condition and that which existed in the early days of the nation, the essential nearness is quite as marked. In primitive times when our national life was less complex, there was no necessity for the organization of education of the hand. An enormous pressure of circumstance made the boys farmers, artisans, hunters, seamen; the girls housewives, in alternation with their experience of books. No nice adjustment of intellectual and manual pursuits was called for; school waited on the farm and the shop, and each made way for the other. This relation is not unknown to-day, and on the sands of Cape Cod, within sound of the water that has covered the footprints of the Pilgrims, the hand drops the slate-pencil and the chalk when the ripe cranberry summons.

In like manner the spiritual training of the young was determined by the conditions of society and limited by the horizon which encircled the community. In the conception of that day religion and theology were synonymous terms, and Christianity itself was an ecclesiastical structure. The tremendous conflict which the Puritan waged with the powers of darkness was such a hand-to-hand fight that he recognized no friends who did not wear his colors, and saw in art, in literature, and in nature itself only foes in disguise. The one weapon which he used, his sword, his buckler, his shield, his javelin, his whole armory for defense and for attack, was the Bible. I count it not the least of the miracles wrought by this book that it should have so transformed the nature of the people worshiping it as to have spiritualized and rationalized the conception in which it is held. We speak of the steady degradation of idolators who begin by using an image as the shelter of a god, and end by reverencing only the stock or stone from which all notion of the god has fled. But I do not hesitate to say that the spectacle of modern Anglo-Saxon Protestant Christianity deliberately destroying its idol of literal inspiration in order to apprehend more perfectly the divinity enshrined within the sacred edifice is one of the most striking manifestations of the power of spiritual Christianity. While assailants have aimed to overthrow the authority of this ark of the covenant, the reverent hands of the most fearless, yet most devout scholars in Christendom have been at work tearing down the defenses which men have set up about it, confident that no power on earth can destroy the real sacredness. That is as indestructible as light. The revision of the Bible, by opening the Bible wider, has put an end to bibliolatry.

Now the ecclesiastical progenitors of the men in this country who have

engaged in this work of revision set an extraordinary value on the Bible, making it in fact the political as well as the religious text-book of the people. They did more. They gave it a supreme and exclusive place in the home and the school. They used it as a reading-book because their conception of education was a religious conception, and the Bible was first and always in their minds a religious book. Its authority was unimpeachable, and its influence was enormous. Within its lids were shut all those literary forces which made for the spiritual enrichment of the boy or girl. Rightly was it named the book of books, for outside of this book there was scarcely any literature of light accessible, while within it the sky overarched the human soul. History, biography, political philosophy, ethics—all these lay on the pages of the Bible, and the reasoning faculties were strengthened and stimulated by means of this book, but the forcible discussions in church and state served the same end, and the world gave forth a literature of knowledge and dialectics which was availed of. What our fathers did not receive from the world to any considerable extent was that literature of the spirit* which finds a response in the imagination and fancy. There was, indeed, in the educated class a recourse still to the spring of Helicon and the mount of Parnassus, but I am keeping in mind those who had not a classical education. The literature of light that had its expression in English letters was frowned upon in the Puritan judgment, but by a great and fortunate provision it was not excluded from the Puritan common education. The Bible contained what was necessary to salvation, and so, in a scheme which resolved society into individual persons, the Bible became the possession of each person. Most truly was it necessary to salvation. It saved men from the starvation of their higher natures. It fed the sources of spiritual power. This book brought poetry and the vision into minds which otherwise would have been darkened by knowledge. It spanned the whole arc of human life with its bow of promise, and the radiant light which streamed from psalm, from prophecy, from narrative and parable, penetrated the minds of the young. The sanctity which was thrown around it enhanced the power of its appeal to the spirit, and while its teachers were using it for its doctrinal efficiency and also as a reading-book in the schools, they were opening vistas into the realm of poetic beauty, all other entrances to which they had carefully closed.†

* I have changed slightly the terms of the familiar distinction formulated by De Quincey, who divided literature into the literature of knowledge and the literature of power, because I think the term spirit more definitive.

† I have been speaking, of course, of a condition of American life, with special reference to New England. I am glad to quote here the forcible words in which the same theme is presented by the late Matthew Arnold in reference to English life: "Only one literature there is, one great literature, for which the people have had a preparation,—the literature of the Bible. However far they may be from having a complete preparation for it, they have some; and it is the only great literature for which they have any. Their bringing-up, what they have heard and talked of ever since they were born, have given them no sort of conversance with the forms, fashions, notions, wordings, allusions, of literature having its source in Greece and Rome; but they have given them a good deal of conversance with the forms, fashions, notions, wordings, allusions, of the Bible. Zion and Babylon are their Athens

In process of time, as the religious power which so largely influenced our early educational system in this country relaxed its stringent hold, and gave place to a philosophy which partook of the prevailing intellectual temper of the eighteenth century, the Bible became less exclusively the book of the people and less distinctly the one book of the schools. But the schools themselves suffered for awhile a neglect in the public estimation. It should be remembered that England gave little help to the colonies or to the young republic in this matter, for popular education in England was to receive its impulse after many days from America itself. In the low ebb of our educational life, when the first great religious force was spent, and the second great political force had not yet awaked, literature was represented in our schools by such a book as Bingham's *Columbian Orator*, which contained, as its title-page promised, "a variety of original and selected pieces, together with rules calculated to improve youth and others in the ornamental and useful art of eloquence." It is noticeable that literature and speech-making were nearly identical in the minds of people at that period. The poetry of the book was from Hannah More, Addison, and Rowe. There was a farce by Garrick, and a passage from Miss Burney's *Camilla* arranged as a dialogue.

When this indifference to schools began to give way before the growing sense of the importance to the country of a general education, the result was seen in the production of a higher class of school-readers. Those who remember the *American First Class Book* and others of its kind will recollect how high was the order of literature presented in these books. They held their place for awhile, but by degrees a change occurred, and the new order is an interesting one to consider, both because it was part of a more extended mental process, and because, as I think, we are now passing out from under its influence.

Roughly speaking, our present system of common schools is about fifty years old, and in that time there has been an extraordinary activity in the production of text-books in the great departments of human knowledge. This activity is a natural result of the wide-spread attention to popular education. It is not the competition of publishers alone but the set of public interest which has made our geographies, histories, arithmetics, and spellers so elaborate, so ingenious, and so attractive in mechanical aspects. Every specialist in education sees defects in the text-books which teach his science. If he makes a text-book himself, it is because he cannot find in any of those in use just the quality which rises before his mind as the ideal

and Rome; their Ida and Olympus are Tabor and Hermon; Sharon is their Tempe; these and the like Bible names can reach their imagination, kindle trains of thought and remembrance in them. The elements with which the literature of Greece and Rome conjures have no power on them; the elements with which the literature of the Bible conjures have. Therefore I have so often insisted in reports to the Education Department, on the need, if from this point of view only, for the Bible in schools for the people. If poetry, philosophy, and eloquence, if what we call in one word *letters*, are a power, and a beneficent wonder-working power, in education, through the Bible only have the people much chance of getting at poetry, philosophy, and eloquence."—*The Great Prophecy of Israel's Restoration*, p. 10.

excellence, and after he has made his own he longs to bring out a new and revised edition. This authorial energy has kept pace with the growth of the school system. It would be hard to compute the literary force which has found a field for exercise in the construction of school text-books in America. It may be said to be the one department of literature where, without international copyright, American authors have had full play, and have been affected scarcely at all by English book-makers. The text-book literature of America is almost as independent of English literature of the same kind as if the writers were debarred by law from the use of English material. They were not debarred by law, but they were subject to that higher, unwritten law which makes a great institution like the common schools of an independent nation compel those who serve the institution to consider its peculiar needs, and to be strongly affected by the spirit which resides in it. The schools of our country have had such innate force that they have shaped themselves and the apparatus they require after the law of their own being, and not after some foreign model. We go to England and France and Germany and Sweden and Russia, and bring back criticisms on our methods and suggestions; but after all the Americanism of our schools, whether its force is for good or for evil, is too potent to be greatly modified by other nationalities.

Now while this activity in fitting text-books to the needs of schools has been exercised freely in the direction of the literature of knowledge, what do we see in the field of text-book literature of the spirit? Externally, a like advance in all that attracts the eye. The reading-books are often exceedingly beautiful. The best of paper is used, the type is clear, and there is a profusion of delicate wood-cuts. Again, there is evident the same refinement in method which characterizes other text-books, a like regard for intellectual gradation, a minute attention to all the apparatus of reading, the details of pronunciation, of definition, of accent. In a word, the reading-books partake of precisely the characteristics which are observable in other text-books. They stand on the same footing with geographies, histories, arithmetics, and spellers. They are grouped in the same system. It is not uncommon to see a series embracing all these elementary studies, and the craze for uniformity is satisfied by finding readers, arithmetics, geographies, and spellers all made by one man, published in external harmony by one house, and applied with nice precision of grading to all the children in a town.

But the agreement between the text-book literature of knowledge and the text-book literature of spirit is even closer than through external conformity. There has been a constant attempt at making the latter do the work of the former. Elaborate systems have been contrived by which the pupil when employed in the exercise of reading shall reinforce the departments of knowledge. His reading-book tends to become an encyclopædia, and it is *hoped that when he has escaped the toils of the biologist, the geographer,*

the historian, he will find in his reading-book more natural history, more geography, more civil and political history. The idle muses are set at work. Pegasus is harnessed to a tip-cart.

This indifference to the higher functions of literature, this disposition to regard the reading-book as mainly a means for promoting an acquaintance with the forms of written speech,—whence is its origin? Why is it that with the whole realm of English literature open to the text-book maker, there should have been until recently almost an entire disregard of it, especially in the construction of those grades of reading-books which are coëxtensive with the school life of the vast majority of American children? I think the answer will be found in the power of this great institution of common schools to compel those who serve it to partake of its spirit, to be strongly affected by the very character of the life which they are seeking to shape.

To see the bearings of this, we must take into view the whole mass of literature for the young. The period of fifty years last past has witnessed an increasing volume of this literature, and also the growth of a sentiment in favor of it. The disposition to separate the reading of the young from the reading of the mature is of very modern development, and it has resulted in the creation of a distinct order of books, magazines, and papers. Not only has there been great industry in authorship, but great industry also in editorial work. The classics of literature have been drawn upon not so much through selection as through adaptation. Great works, whose greatness lay much in their perfection of form, have been diminished and brought low for the use of the young. The accumulation of this great body of reading-matter—we can scarcely call it literature—has been largely in consequence of the immense addition to the reading population caused by the extension of the common-school system. When the children of a nation are taken at the age of five or six and kept eight or ten years at school, and this schooling becomes the great feature of their life, dominating their activity and determining the character of their thought, it is natural that books and reading should be largely accessory, and that the quality of the audience should strongly affect the kind of speech addressed to it. In a general way this great horde of young readers in America has created a large number of special writers for the young, and both readers and writers have been governed by the American life which they lead.

Now the text-books in reading which have prevailed in our schools have come under this influence—an influence pervasive and unstudied rather than acute and determined. The quantitative and not the qualitative test has been regarded. By no preconcerted signal, but in obedience to the law of their social and literary life, the makers of reading-books began to disregard English standards and to fill these books with the commonplace of their own writing and that of those about them. They lost their sense of literature *as a fine art*, and looked upon it only as an exercise in elocution

and the vehicle for knowledge, or at the highest for ethics and patriotic sentiment. They lost also their apprehension of the power of great literature in its wholes, and made their books collections of fragments. There are two facts which signally characterize the condition of the popular mind under this régime: First, that literature is relegated to the higher grades as something to be studied; and, secondly, that the newspaper is advocated as a reading-book in schools. So remote has literature come to be in the popular conception. This state of things may have been inevitable; it is none the less deplorable.

If it ever was inevitable, it is so no longer. The Americanism which controls our common schools has had during this period of fifty years a development in a direction of the utmost value to education. The organization of the common-school system has come to be a great factor in our civilization. It yields statistics with extraordinary facility. The value of school property, the number of children in schools, the number of teachers, the sums expended in salaries, the cost of the plant, the running expenses—all these things can be faintly guessed at by anyone who sits down before the reports of the Bureau of Education in Washington. The results seem to be measurable; such a mighty engine, such an expenditure of fuel, so much power. We can marshal the figures and set them against the figures of the standing armies of Europe. The eye, the ear, are assaulted by this great array of mobilized facts. And yet the largest fact remains, that the system knows no central bureau organizing and directing it, no head, no compact array of officers ordering and controlling it. It is a living organism, sentient in all its parts, moving under discipline, yet the discipline of law beyond the mastery of any man. It is at once an exponent of national life and one of the great forces of America.

Look now upon this other page of our national history, which lies open by its side. Fifty years ago there were living in America six men of mark, of whom the youngest was then nineteen years of age, the oldest forty-four. Three of the six are in their graves, and three still breathe the kindly air. One only of the six has held high place in the national councils, and it is not by that distinction that he is known and loved. They have not been in battle; they have had no armies at their command; they have not amassed great fortunes, nor have great industries waited on their movements. Those pageants of circumstance which kindle the imagination have been remote from their names. They were born on American soil; they have breathed American air; they were nurtured on American ideas. They are Americans of Americans. They are as truly the issue of our national life as are the common schools in which we glory. During the fifty years in which our common-school system has been growing to maturity, these six have lived and sung; and I dare to say that the lives and songs of Bryant, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Lowell have an imperishable value regarded as exponents of national life, not for a moment to be outweighed

in the balance by the most elaborate system of common schools which the wit of man may devise. The nation may command armies and schools to rise from its soil, but it cannot call into life a poet. Yet when the poet comes, and we hear his voice in the upper air, then we know that the nation he owns is worthy of the name. Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles? even so, pure poetry springs from no rank soil of national life.

From the Americanism, then, that is the mere appropriation of the nearest good, we turn to that Americanism which partakes of the ideal and the spiritual. It is not a remote concern of our common schools that these six poets whom I have named because they are distinctively poets, and those other great ones like Hawthorne, Irving, and Cooper, who associate with them in spiritual power, have been the consummate flower of American life; for it is through their works that spiritual light most surely and immediately may penetrate our common schools. We cannot turn back the wheels of time and replace the Bible as the sole reading-book. The day may come when the reasonable and reverent study of this book shall be an essential part of the education of every child in America, and Christianity shall not be robbed of its most precious document and most efficient teacher by irrational methods, false notions of reverence, and professional assumptions; but that day has not yet come, and we may meanwhile take courage and have hope when we consider in how many schools of the land its words still fall daily on the listening ear as the blessing before the morning task. We cannot, I say, nor would we, replace the Bible as the sole reading-book. The conditions of our life and thought forbid this. The avenues by which spiritual power finds entrance to the soul are more varied than our fathers supposed, or than we have yet fully recognized in our systems of education, although we are feeling our way upward. Nature is such an avenue, and we have not yet learned to place our school-houses in gardens, as we one day shall, though there are glimpses of the perception of this truth in many bright school-rooms in the land. Music is such an avenue, so also is art, but neither music nor art, though there are signs of greater native earnestness in application to them in America, has anything like the possibility of power to affect the spiritual nature of children which our literature possesses. God has set great lamps in the heaven of our national life, and it is for us to let the radiance stream into the minds of the children in our schools.

I am not arguing for the critical study of our great authors in the higher grades of our schools. They are not the best subjects for critical scholarship; criticism demands greater remoteness, greater foreignness of nature. Moreover, critical study is not the surest method of securing the full measure of spiritual light, though it yields abundant gain in the refinement of the intellectual nature, and in the quickening of the perceptive faculties. I am arguing for the free, generous use of these authors in the principal years of school life. It is then that their power is most profoundly needed and will be most strongly felt. We need to put our children in their impressionable

years into instant and close connection with the highest manifestation of our national life. Away with the bottle and the tube! Give them a lusty draught at the mother's full breast!

It may be objected that this is too restricted a view to take of literature in our common schools. Why not, some may say, give them the best we have, irrespective of time? are there not writers to-day, whose Americanism is just as fervid and who stand a little closer to the ear by reason of their youth and promise? I answer that we cannot afford to dismiss from the account the immense value which our classical writers have by reason of their being classical. The perspective in which we see them adds to their symmetry in our eyes, and there has grown up about them already a circumstance which invests them with dignity and authority. They are in the philosophic sense idols of the imagination, and by virtue of the divinity which thus hedges them, their lightest words have a weight which is incommunicable by those spoken from the lips of men and women not yet elevated above the young by the affection and admiration of generations of readers. To the group which I have named others will be added from time to time, but for educational purposes, the writers whom America has accepted as her great first group must long continue to have a power unattainable by others.

I have not cared to divide my argument; to show the power of humane literature in enlarging and enriching the common-school system, and then to demonstrate that American literature is the most fit instrument to this end. I have preferred to postulate what is inescapable, that American literature of some sort our schools will have, and I call you away from the cheap, commonplace, fragmentary American literature of our school text-books, which have so long done disservice, to the inspiriting, noble, luminous, and large-hearted American literature which waits admission at the doors of our school-houses. The volume of this literature is not very great, and it is lessened for practical purposes by parts which are inappropriate for school use; but it would not be difficult to replace the volume of reading-matter offered in the reading-books above the grade of the elementary, by an equal volume of American classic literature, and the gain would be enormous. If, according to the common practice in our schools, the child were reading over and over and over again the great literature which he would never forget in place of the little literature which he will never remember, how immeasurable would be the difference in the furnishing of his mind.

Nor do I fear that such a course would breed a narrow and parochial Americanism. On the contrary, it would destroy a vulgar pride in country, help the young to see humanity from the heights on which the masters of song have dwelt, and open the mind to the more hospitable entertainment of the best literature of every clime and age. I am convinced that there is no surer way to introduce the best English literature into our schools than

to give the place of honor to American literature. In the order of nature, the youth must be a citizen of his own country before he can become naturalized in the world. We recognize this in our geography and history; we may wisely recognize it also in our reading.

Yet in the same order there is an incipient, prophetic humanism before there is a conscious nationalism, and this earlier stage of the mind requires food of its own kind. I said just now that we had sufficient classic American literature to answer the demands of the exercises in reading above the elementary period. To meet the needs of the earliest years, after the primer has been finished, we have in our reading-books chiefly tried to produce moral effects. We have been too anxious to teach elementary ethics by means of elementary readers, and if we have given ourselves up to what may be called unmoral literature, we have been content to reproduce for the child just the limited experience of life which its senses may have taught it. We have left out of account that very large element of wonder which inheres in the young child's nature, and we have been too neglectful of that pure sentiment to which the child is quick to respond. We are to find the literature for this period in the corresponding period of the world's childhood. The literature of fable, myth, and legend may be drawn upon. The ancient world, the mediæval world, and the infrequent children-authors of the modern world, of whom Andersen is the leader, may all be laid under contribution to satisfy the demands for literature which shall not leave the child just where it was after it has conned it, but shall have given wings to its fancy and imagination, and suffered it to take flight beyond the little confines of its sight and hearing. Literature of this sort makes the transition from the primer to national literature.

The place, then, of literature in our common-school education is in spiritualizing life, letting light into the mind, inspiring and feeding the higher forces of human nature. In this view, the reading-book becomes vastly more than a mere drill-book in elocution, and it becomes of the greatest consequence that it should be rigorously shut up to the best, and not be made the idle vehicle of the second-best. It must never be forgotten that the days of a child's life are precious; it has no choice within the walls of the school-room. In its hours for reading it must take what we give it. Be sure that the standard which we set in our school reading-books will inevitably affect its choice of reading out of school; that the conceptions which it forms of literature and the ideal life will be noble or ignoble according as we use our opportunities. It is for us to say whether the American child shall be brought up to have its rightful share in the great inheritance of America.

For, after all, we never have got to the bottom of such a subject as this until we have answered the question, What relation has it to true Americanism? We repeat to ourselves that we have organized and are carrying on our magnificent system of free public schools, in order that the children of this country may grow up loyal Americans. The cry of danger at the with-

drawal of great bodies of children, to be bred in schools which have no organic connection with the State, springs from the fear that such children will be less American. But what are we doing in our own schools to cultivate a large, free American spirit? And what are the elements of that spirit?

I answer the second question first. There is the element of continuity. In the Roman household there stood the cinerary urns which held the ashes of the ancestors of the family. Do you think the young ever forgot the unbroken line of descent by which they climbed to the heroic founders of the State? In the Jewish family the child was taught to think and speak of the God of Abraham, and of Isaac, and of Jacob. In that great succession he heard a voice which told him that his nation was not of a day. It is the business of the old to transmit to the young the great traditions of the past of the country; to feed anew the undying flame of patriotism.

There is the element of destiny. No nation lives upon its past; it is already dead when it says: "Let us eat and drink to-day; to-morrow we die." But what that destiny is to be may be read in the ideals which the young are forming; and those ideals, again, it is the business of the old to guide. They cannot form them; the young must form them for themselves, but whether those ideals shall be large or petty, honorable or mean, will depend much upon the sustenance on which they are fed.

Now, in a democracy more signally than under any other form of national organization, it is vitally necessary that there should be an unceasing, unimpeded circulation of the spiritual life of the people. The sacrifices of the men and women who have made and preserved America from the days of Virginia and New England to this hour have been ascending from the earth in a never-ending cloud; they have fallen again in strains of music, in sculpture, in painting, in memorial hall, in tale, in oration, in poem, in consecration of life, and the spirit which ascended is the same as that which descended. In literature, above all, is this spirit enshrined. You have but to throw open the shrine and the spirit comes with its outspread blessing upon millions of waiting souls. Entering them, it reissues in countless shapes, and thus is the life of the nation in its highest form kept ever in motion, and without motion is no life.

PRACTICAL METHODS OF USING LITERATURE IN TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ.

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I am to discuss practical methods of using literature in teaching children to read. I shall proceed on the assumption that one of the highest offices of the school is to fit pupils for intelligent reading and to give a decided impulse toward the appreciative use of good books. My argument is chiefly

with reference to the employment of entire literary masterpieces in the class exercise, the use of volumes from the library in connection with the study of geography, history and science, and the direction of the general reading of the pupils. Whatever value these suggestions may have is attributable to the fact that they spring from a practical application of the principles presented.

It will be seen from the remarks just made that the subject of teaching children to read is regarded as extensive in its scope. The teacher's task is not completed when the boy or girl has gained the power to pronounce glibly all the words of some assigned lesson. The art of oral reading must be taken into the account in any adequate consideration of our subject, but it is important chiefly as the means to a higher end and as a test of the comprehension of the printed thought. The work is not fully performed if the child learns to interpret fairly the pieces in his reader. Many make the mistake of supposing that when the ordinary exercise of the recitation hour is finished, the teacher's responsibility ends. We are very apt to teach pupils how to read in the book prescribed for class use, and to give them no instruction as to the literature they should use and the methods they should follow when reading as individuals. The mere ability to read, with no developing ideas as to the difference between good and bad books and no growing desire for the best in literature, is of questionable benefit. There is a distinct educational duty in training young people to the intelligent reading of worthy books and in developing an earnest purpose to study them. Happily this idea is gaining ground in our land, and as a consequence, we are drawing nearer with each advancing year to the fulfillment of that which is possibly the noblest work of the school. No discussion of our present theme would be at all complete without a treatment of those higher phases of the subject which have to do with the cultivation of literary taste and the development of a worthy reading habit.

The material which is chosen for the class exercise will determine to no inconsiderable degree the methods which are to be employed. There are certain desirable or essential characteristics of acceptable literature for work in reading which it may be well to specify.

There will be little dissent from the statement that the productions selected should be classics, should have those distinctive and preëminent merits of style which lift the masterpiece above the common-place work. There are two reasons for the use of literary works of the highest order: they are effective models for the child's imitation, and they tell powerfully on the development of literary taste. If pupils are allowed to study that which is inferior, the standards which they will form will be low. Since there are many noble English classics suitable for the different grades in our schools, it is a serious mistake to put ordinary writings into the hands of young people for their intellectual training and for their unconscious imitation.

The consideration of the use of *entire* classics in the reading hour demands

special attention. So early and so far as is possible, complete works may be best employed. The chief reason for this is that extended productions lend themselves to logical mental training better than collections of extracts of brief pieces. The ordinary school reader with its constant change of subject and style, tends to distract the attention and confuse the childish mind. One of the teacher's greatest cares should be to develop in the pupils the power of continued application of mind in one direction. In this the use of entire classics is of great assistance. Furthermore, the outside reading which the child will do during his school days and after he leaves school will be largely in connected narrative or argument, not in a collection of extracts. Some regard should be had for the preparation for this reading of actual life. Still another reason for the ideas here presented may be given. Those who have tried the experiment will testify, I am sure, that pupils are almost invariably more interested in the entire classics, suited to their ages, than in the numbered readers.

Let not the remarks that have been made be misinterpreted. The ordinary school readers serve a very useful purpose, and should not be thrown aside. In the primer period of a child's life a book designed especially to build up a vocabulary is a necessity. The more advanced readers give an opportunity for introducing some variety in the programme, and they furnish full parallel explanation and language helps, which many teachers need and the average entire school classic does not have. Possibly the school readers may most wisely be used as regular texts for a number of weeks in the fall months and employed for supplementary and sight-reading during the remainder of the year. They should always be handled so as to develop most largely their possibilities for literary training. To this end it may be wise to read consecutively from the reader all the pieces by one author, giving so much attention as is practicable to his life, character and other works. Thus in the sixth grade pupils may helpfully be kept for a month or six weeks upon the pieces by Longfellow. Since after the works of one literary man have been studied for a few weeks, those of another can be taken up; since there is frequent change of theme and of style; since prose and poetry may be read alternately, there is no sacrifice of variety.

It was the intention to consider at some length other characteristics of good matter for the reading class, but the limitation of time makes it necessary to pass on with brief mention. The classics chosen should be, so far as possible, instructive, giving information as to fact or principle; interesting to children, that they may arouse the enthusiasm and secure, in consequence, that concentration of mind which is necessary to effective work. They should be carefully arranged in the progressive order, with a gradual transition from the simpler to the more difficult, that they may promote intellectual growth. They may well be, when it is practicable, the works of authors of assured position among the greater literary men. The writings of Americans should be used largely in American schools.

After a decision is made as to the general character of the works which should be read in class, the judgment of the teacher must determine what specific masterpieces shall be chosen. One list will differ more or less from another. The speaker has found that for primary and grammar grades, among other classics, *Æsop's Fables*, *Scudder's Book of Folk-Stories*, *Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales*, *Hawthorne's Wonder-Book*, *Tanglewood Tales* and *Grandfather's Chair*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Kingsley's The Greek Heroes*, *Scott's Tales of a Grandfather and the Lady of the Lake*, and *Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare*, introduced in the graded course in the order named, are excellent. However, if the principle of selection is a wise one, the list determined by it will be satisfactory.

Careful preparation should precede most of the reading that is done in the class. Pupils cannot advance properly in reading any more than in geography and in grammar, when all the work is done in the half-hour set aside for the daily exercise. If all the reading is without preparation, satisfactory results will not be secured.

Under the head of prepared reading we have to consider oral reading and silent mental reading. The most obvious purpose of the class exercise, determining methods to a considerable extent, is suggested in the discussion of oral reading. Due attention must be given to the rendering, because, aside from other evident advantages which it brings, it affords an effective test of the comprehension of the thought. By it we determine whether or not the author's meaning is grasped by the pupils. While the important matter is to get at the thought, the oral rendering, the means to this and the test of it, should receive our consideration.

A great deal of drill is necessary, that the child may be trained to read aright orally. This statement is based upon the theory that practice makes perfect. Every means should be adopted that will afford opportunity for increased practice in reading aloud. In general, concert recitations are not to be recommended. Concert renderings in the reading class are helpful, as in them each pupil has an opportunity for more exercise of the vocal organs than is possible with individual reading merely. Children may wisely be urged to read aloud at home for a few minutes each day. This will assist materially in the class work. Accuracy in pronunciation, fluency in the rendering, proper emphasis, and a sympathetic reproduction of the author's thought should be secured. If it is worthy, the reading will be distinct, forcible, and in natural tones. Mechanical renderings are not to be allowed; if for no other reason, because they check the understanding of the text. Reading by the pupil in imitation of the teacher's rendering is rarely helpful. It will not cultivate the self-reliant power of rendering any piece at sight. It will be very likely to degenerate into a mechanical form, and will consequently retard the work along the lines of mind-training and culture. Imitative reading rarely meets the prime requirement, which is that all oral renderings should be intelligent, springing from a full understanding of the author's thought. Otherwise they are useless.

It is the teacher's duty to see that the child understands that which he reads, and is able to explain it properly. With this remark, our discussion passes to the subject of silent reading. In its consideration is introduced the second purpose of the class exercise. This purpose is concerned with the development of the ability to interpret readily and accurately the thought of the printed and written page. It is higher in its character than the purpose underlying oral reading, and gives a more helpful facility. The intent in the school is not to make good rhetorical readers, although that is important and helps very greatly in the mental work, but to develop intelligence in silent reading and to furnish the equipment which will enable the pupil to enter wisely into the world of books. In the silent reading the chief aim is to promote mental growth. The purpose underlying our methods is an educational one of the highest order. If this purpose be properly carried out, the reading exercise as a mentally quickening and disciplining factor will yield place to no other branch in the curriculum.

In this consideration we find the chief warrant for the introduction and retention of the daily class exercise in reading in our public schools.

In order that the thought may be properly comprehended, there is the need of the constant use of all the aids which can be brought to bear upon the subject: in the lower grades by the teacher for the pupils; in the higher classes by instructor and students working together. The dictionary, the grammar, the hand-book of rhetoric, must be in constant use. Grammatical and rhetorical points, with more advanced pupils, should be considered as far as it is necessary for a full understanding of the author's thought. There is a positive gain in connecting grammar and reading, in taking from good literature the exercises for analysis and parsing and in directly applying the principles of grammar and rhetoric in the interpretation of the selections for reading. There has been at times an outcry to the effect that children get a distaste for good literature if classics are used in grammatical work. The writer has not found it to be so. Oftentimes the pupils enjoy such a work as *Evangeline* when used specifically for the study of syntax as heartily as when it is read as literature. Teachers cannot do a wiser thing than to put entire literary masterpieces, provided they are not too difficult, into the hands of pupils for analysis and parsing. Yet in carrying out this idea we must be careful not to convert the reading lesson into a grammatical exercise. The primary purpose in it is to teach the children to read understandingly. Grammar and rhetoric may well enter so far as to give a mastery of the thought and the expression of the author in hand, to throw all possible light upon the interpretation of the text under consideration. The cyclopedia, the atlas, and other reference books, will, if a wise course be pursued, be used habitually. Pupils should be trained to their proper employment. Historical and geographical references and all other allusions, if wisdom dictates, will be traced out so far as to make *perfectly clear the meaning of the text*. Yet this principle should be applied

only so far as to give intelligent comprehension, not in such detail as to check the interest in the reading.

As has been stated, the proper oral rendering of a passage generally indicates an understanding of it; but the teacher must not be content with this. The oral reading is but one of the tests which are to be employed in ascertaining whether or not the pupils have a full comprehension of the thought. In various ways the teacher may satisfy himself as to the thoroughness of the preparation for the recitation and the effectiveness of the silent reading. In getting at the pupils' understanding of the text and in enlarging and illustrating it by skillful and suggestive questioning, the teacher's tact and ability appear in their strongest light. The pupils are to do the work, the thinking, the talking; the teacher is to see that they do it properly. The tests applied should be both oral and written. Written work, on slate, paper or blackboard, may wisely be carried along throughout the course parallel with the oral lessons. Exercises in definition, in the use of synonyms, in the explanation of the thought of sentences and paragraphs, in paraphrasing, in reproducing from memory the thought of the text, in giving sketches of character and plot, are some of the lines of work which may be used as tests and at the same time as language aids.

While most of the reading that is done in the class should follow careful preparation, there must also be much reading at sight. Ample provision may wisely be made for the use in class of matter which the pupils have not seen before. The purpose of this is to give ease and readiness in interpreting thought and to afford a fitting preparation for the impromptu reading that is to run through life. It is wise, when it is possible, to have extra sets of classics for reading at sight, with the understanding that they are to be kept at the teacher's desk, except when they are in class use. If the numbered readers are not employed as regular texts, they will afford good material for impromptu reading. A single volume from the general library may be passed from one pupil to another, each one reading without preparation one or more paragraphs. In this reading at sight, the pupils cannot be held so strictly to account for explanation as in the prepared reading; yet here as everywhere, they ought not to be allowed to advance without a fair understanding of that which they read.

Up to this point in the discussion only the matter that is to be used in the class exercise has been considered fully. As was suggested at the outset, this does not close the treatment of the subject. It has been implied that there are several different lines of work in the school which may be regarded as included under the general head of reading. For convenience a consideration of them may be connected with a discussion of the different departments of literature which the teacher will naturally consider in their relations to the reading of pupils. The fields of reading mentioned, it must be borne in mind, cannot be entirely separated in practice, although we may find it helpful *to consider them apart in our discussion.*

The first thought will be concerning what is sometimes denominated general literature. Novels, romances, short stories, essays, poetry, all, in that goes to make up the literature of life, may here be included. Into this department many of the suggestions for outside reading by pupils will fall. From works in this group will be selected most of the material used in the class exercise. Two methods of employing this material have been mentioned. The first has to do with the conduct of the daily recitation; the second with the impulse given toward the outside and future reading of the student. Advantage should be taken in the class-room of the opportunities constantly presenting themselves, for fostering a desire to become acquainted with the literature of life.

Another line of reading which will hold our attention for a moment is that of supplementary literature, that which affords material for the illustration of various school subjects and makes possible the introduction into the schools of books upon geography, history, and science. Much effective work may be accomplished by closely connecting the exercise in reading with the literatures of these subjects, by giving to the pupils suggestions that will lead them to the authoritative works in lines allied to their studies. Every day in the reading hour remarks may be made that will draw attention to books of geography and history. Thus an interest will be created that will lead directly to the improvement of the literary taste and the development of the reading habit. Geography and history are best taught by a plan which involves sending the pupils to the geographical and historical classics that they may investigate topics and report upon them. In addition to the increased interest and knowledge for class-work in these subjects, in all probability a decided inclination for reading in these other fields will be developed.

A third line of suggestion and direction may be mentioned. It is that which leads to the supplementary study of literary criticism, bibliography, and biography in connection with the reading of English classics. It will come in for consideration that which in some schools is known as author study. It should accompany all masterpiece study in separate volume as well as in the numbered readers. It involves a consideration of the life, character, and writings of each of the literary men whose books are read in class. This may be partly through brief lessons from day to day, partly through special exercises, when a session of school or an evening is set aside for this purpose. Everything is done in such exercises to interest the pupils in the authors and their writings. A varied and attractive programme may be carried out, with the use of all possible aids for illustration. Pictures of the writer, of his homes and of places celebrated in his works, his collections of writings and all available material about him and his books, may be placed in the school-room. Essays, written and oral reports as to his life, character, friends, and homes; citations and readings from his works; anecdotes about him and tributes to him; his poems set to familiar airs and sung

the pupils, may profitably be introduced into the order of exercises. Outlines of his life; lists of his books and extracts from them, may be copied upon the blackboard and read therefrom. The aim is to develop special interest in the life and works of the one author, and through them in good literature generally.

Some treatment of the places for reading or the sources whence issue the suggestions and whence comes the material may not be amiss. The initial consideration will be of the school-room. This is the center and source of all the impulses which tend toward the development of the reading habit and the elevation of the literary taste of the pupil. The wise teacher will devote much time and energy to the direction of the outside reading done by the pupils and the lines which lead up to it.

We cannot proceed very far in pursuance of the suggestions just made without coming to a consciousness of the necessity of directing the library work of our school children, of assisting them in drawing proper books from the library, and in using them fittingly. We must here bear in mind that at least three purposes should dominate in the management of the general reading of boys and girls. These purposes are connected severally with topical study and the accumulation of knowledge, with mental discipline and growth, and with the development of culture. When we come to the consideration of culture-training in reading, we are dealing with the most important phase of our subject. The highest purpose of the reading exercise is to open up new avenues of interest, to set in operation trains of thought that will conduce to the elevation of the literary taste, the enlargement of the intellectual horizon, the development of the love for good books, the cultivation of the reading habit. In carrying out this purpose we are working most wisely for the future enjoyment and profit of the pupils. Next to character-training, literary training is the highest product of the school, as, next to worthy character, the taste for good literature is the highest possession of the student. One of the most important duties of the teacher lies along the lines of this culture-purpose in reading.

The school or city library, be it large or small, if rightly used, will prove an incalculable benefit. Talks about books, with illustrative volumes in hand, may frequently be given by some competent guide. Carefully prepared book-lists, with suitable titles for different ages, may be distributed among the pupils. No opportunity for introducing remarks in the school that will interest pupils in worthy volumes should be allowed to pass unimproved. The teacher's work does not close when the suggestions for reading are made. Tests of the reading should be brought to bear. Pupils may be asked to report to the teacher, orally and in writing, concerning the books which they use. This will prove the efficiency of the reading that is done, and will afford an opportunity of guiding aright the forming taste and suggesting literary material for the future. Occasionally a half-hour may be set aside *from the ordinary programme* in the school-room for reports by

pupils concerning their general reading. In all this work the aim is to lead constantly from lower to higher literature.

One very important phase of library work remains to be presented. It is that which has to do with the formation and use of individual libraries. Young people should be encouraged to obtain good books and begin the formation of libraries of their own. The sense of personal possession is an important factor in literary training. One whose reading is confined to the volumes drawn from the shelves of the public library will not develop in any high sense a love for books. The bibliophiles are always book-owners. There is a great gain coming from the constant presence of the volumes which one uses. One does not enter into the friendships of books, so that they are regarded with affection and treated with respect, until he has begun to surround himself with his own. Children cannot be trained too early to make use of the great aid to mental quickening which literary possession brings. Accompanying the formation of libraries, there should be careful instruction as to their use. Not only are young people to be urged to possess books. They must be trained, if the best outcome is sought, to their proper employment, that there may be the most effectual work looking to the development of taste. The instruction as to the use of the child's library may be made to cover the mechanical handling, that the volumes may be kept clean and in good condition generally, and also the more weighty matter of the mastery and fitting application of their contents.

In this attempt to cover hastily and necessarily imperfectly the large amount of ground implied in the subject, the speaker has directed his remarks chiefly to the treatment of the reading suitable for the higher primary, intermediate and grammar classes in our graded schools. He has made no effort to discuss specifically the literature for the youngest pupils, or that for high-school students. At present the important problems in reading are those which are presented in the grades below the high school and above the second primary. Yet most of the remarks which have been made will hold true, it is believed, either by direct application or by implication, for all classes in our school system. The principle involved in the discussion is the same for all grades.

THE PRACTICAL VALUE IN LIFE OF A TASTE FOR GOOD LITERATURE.

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It is my desire in this paper to call the attention of those whom I feel honored to greet as comrades, to the great importance of literature in its influence upon the lives of men and women. The subject is one of such great extent, and of so subtle ramifications, that it cannot be exhaustively

treated in a paper of the length of mine. My heart burns with appreciation of its importance, to women especially, because they form the greater number of those to whom are intrusted the care of infancy, and the guidance of youth, the seed-time of all life-habit. Let us consider true literature as one great sacred word from the voice of humanity, the utterance of infinite passion and finite yearning, drawing its power from the WORD that was *with* GOD in the beginning, the WORD that was GOD. Its distinctive mark is *truth*, its effect the glorious liberty of the children of Truth Infinite which was and is and shall be ever.

"The truth in God's breast
Lies, trace for trace, upon ours impressed:
Though He so bright and we so dim,
We are made in His Image to *witness Him*.

Then this Holy Word is the light by which all human words are illuminated, the judge which is to try them. Watch narrowly, beloved soul, for the demonstration of truth in what you read, truth to the natural and to the supernatural.

The great object of life is to live in such a manner that not only shall the soul be purified and strengthened by the discipline of life, but that all other souls may be benefited by the blessed magnetism of a life so lived. Whatever shall help us to the attainment of this, the Kingdom of Heaven within us, is (need we say it?) of practical value to us. It behooves us vitally to feed upon truth, that the truth within us may grow.

Nature, Experience born of Thought and Action, and Books, are the great educators of the human race. Books wield a peculiar power, for not only are they the key which unlocks for us the secrets of Nature, but they in a measure control our actions, by influencing our thought and rousing feeling. Books are the instruments of angels—good or bad; often very bad. Upon their senseless pages are recorded thoughts and passions whose power may rouse for good or ill some kindred power dwelling in the secret chambers of the inmost soul. Their influence is immeasurable, reaching from the individual to the nation, from the nation to the world. They teach us to think; they teach us to feel; they teach us to speak; they teach us to act; in short, they teach us to live, and they should help us to die, for a book, to fulfill its true mission, "must not only suffice the mind, but save the soul beside." It must be like Browning's Ring—in its substance pure and true; in its form the graceful symbol of eternity, the eternity of its own influence, and the token of the union of souls in the common life imparted by the Father.

De Quincey divides all literature into two classes: the literature of Knowledge—that is, the expression of abstract thought alone, whose function is solely to *teach* (in the technical sense), and the literature of Power—the expression of eternal truth born of the union of intellect and spirit in man (spirit meaning man's emotional nature), whose function is both to *teach*, in

its broadest sense, and to *move*. It is the literature of Power we are to consider at present.

Body, mind and spirit grow by what they feed upon. *Give us this day our daily bread* is not prayed for the body only. Mind has its food, as much a part of daily bread, as essential to our mental and spiritual development, as the food craved by the body. It is important for us to begin life as a healthy animal. Herbert Spencer says, (and every philosopher will agree with him, for it is a truism,) we are careful of the food which we provide for the maintenance of our bodies; but we are not in harmony with Nature's laws unless our growth be threefold—physical, mental, and spiritual. If we would not seem to care less for our minds and souls than for the clay covering which clothes them, we must cultivate a taste so pure that it shall reject at once all mental food which may tend to blunt our perception of the good, the beautiful, and the true, Schiller's "Ethical Trinity of the Ages;" and we must assimilate fully that which will enable us to think deeply, feel nobly, act grandly in our several spheres, however circumscribed they may be. As the smallest circle is as perfect as the largest, so the humblest life, spent in the narrowest sphere, may be as complete, as full of true dignity and grandeur, as the life of him whose field of action is the world, and whose circle of influence may not be bounded by terrestrial meridian.

Books must interpret life—ideal life which we must ever seek to make real. As but a small portion of life has to do with earthly things, and as the few years during which we are sojourners here are but for preparation for an eternity beyond the stars, books, to be faithful interpreters, must lift us above the level of life's dark valley, and carry us upward into the bright realms of a purer thought, of a holy aspiration, and a blessed contemplation of Divine Beauty. In so doing they bring all human mind into union with Infinite Mind, and we "see the King in His Beauty." Only thus can books teach us to *live*, and if they fail to do this, it is worse than idleness to feed our minds upon their husks. They should bear us grandly on eagles' wings into the clear sunlight of truth, or on doves' wings waft us gently away from the too-often maddening cares of this insane life of ours, into a rose garden of sweetness and dew where the soul may await the coming of her Beloved.

The perfection of intellectual food is a combination of prose and poetry, and to obtain the most perfect sustenance from it we must have a refined taste for both, "*bread and wine to strengthen man's heart and oil to make him of a cheerful countenance.*" This blessed sustenance ever miraculously increases with the using and the sharing, thanks to the prophetic power of true genius.

Actual truth written in history shows us the doing and the suffering of men, their capacity for action and passion, linking us of this day by thrilling galvanic chains to the lives of our fellow-beings; but we shall gain no

power from this connection, if we know not how to grasp the deep spiritual truths concealed beneath the events of the world's history — the great motive developing man's course on this terrestrial ball, swinging ever surely towards an appointed goal. The true historian will see that his chain is of the right metal and that one end is fastened in Heaven, and if our judgment be true, we will know if this be so.

Life with many is so dry a land that the heart moans for a fountain springing under green boughs, accompanying with sweet plashing the tuned *allegro* of a joyous bird. Such turn from the records of reality to pages bright with optimistic views of all things. Fiction! thou Queen of Fairies! Ah, fairies have not lost their wands, as stupid folk have said! Here is one of the sweet company, witching as a blue-eyed child, and wise as old folk, holding a mirror in which we see human life reflected, and convincing us that life is love. Ah, what a charming world is that peopled by the creations of Scott, Dickens, and their goodly company; but there is truth which is beyond the power of the highest prose to touch. This must be expressed by poet, painter, or sculptor, or remain unrevealed until that day when we shall no more see "through a glass darkly," but shall be face to face with all Truth in the Beatific Vision.

Poetry is necessarily a higher order of literature than prose, for the poet receives his inspiration from the supernatural, and does not allow himself to be closely bound — "cabined, cribbed, confined" — by Nature. He is the sky-lark, soaring into the blue air, singing the hymeneal song, Prothalamion, of earth and Heaven. The supernatural is rooted in the natural, but has its branches and blossoms and fruit in Heaven. The poet sings in the branches. He is a prophet, the inspired seer of truth, the bearer of its torch from age to age. If we fail to grasp the true meaning of life as the Great Source of Life intended it to be, it cannot be because the teachers have been few, or incompetent. It has been said that there is not one *great* poet to a century, yet there have been enough to lead the choir of lesser singers rightly, if they do but hearken and follow. Wherever and whenever, in the evolution of truth which the centuries have witnessed, the world has craved more light, the Divine command — *Let there be Light* — has been reëchoed, and heaven-born thoughts have knocked at the brains of genius and clamored to be given to the world; even the very Light of Light came down from Heaven to give light to them that sat in darkness and in the Shadow of Death. The law of demand and supply is strikingly apparent throughout the whole economy of Nature. Whenever the human mind has been ready to receive a great truth, the interpreter has been sent. The birth of David of Israel, of Homer, of Dante, of Shakespeare, was not accidental, but a working-out through the law of evolution of the Divine plan. Seraph and poet must sing of the goodness of God.

Thoughts, feelings and actions of which life is made up, are controlled by the personality or character; plainly, then, whatever affects the development

of character in a most practical way affects the life of an individual. the books we choose are the most powerful of all agencies in the development of the character, individuality, personality, or whatever we call that mysterious something which makes us really ourselves, we can be in a measure the architects of our own lives. The poet was a truth-teller when he said:

"The seeds of godlike power are in us still:
Gods are we, bards, heroes if we will."

For the life of man is but a spark of the Divine Life, and as far as men become like unto Christ, so far may they be partakers of his Divine Life. All do not belong to the choir of the world's great singers, but each may make his life a grand sweet song, and thus, in a humble way, be a poet. All may command the homage of the world like a Horatius, a Joan of Arc, but in the homely, every-day affairs of the humblest lives there may be deeds of heroism, nobler, it may be, because untold on earth, chronicled only on the angelic record.

Books are as important factors in the development of character as the persons with whom we are intimately associated. We approach much nearer the inner life of an author in his works than to that of our daily companions. The writer puts the best or worst of himself into his book; and should he leave himself out, as is said of our sweet Shakespeare, then we may learn the lesson of an extraordinary humility. A blessed experience may teach one the meaning of friendship, sacred, ideal; or one life may be bound to another by the closest, holiest ties of wedded love, center and circumference; yet, after a lifetime spent together, friend, husband or wife may not cross the barrier, the cruel "*Thus far and no farther*," which guards the sacred precincts of one's real inner being. The center may not touch the circumference, nor the circumference the center. But the author, in his book, meets soul to soul, heart to heart. No better illustration of this revelation of the author's self could be chosen than the works of Elizabeth Barrett Browning, probably the most inspired woman of any age or country. Her utterances are, indeed, the expression of her inmost life. Through her poems shines clearly the inner, beautiful glory of her starlike soul; yet she is not exquisitely human, and purely passionate in all the interests of life.

We must realize the importance of associating with strong, true, noble personalities only, in literature, if we would be strong, pure, true in character. Worse than the taint of leprosy is the touch of vile personalities in reading. We cannot afford to associate with falsehood in any form. A writer willfully departs by so much as one jot or one tittle from the sacred truth as revealed to him, he is a dishonest teacher, unworthy of his vocation, a liar, and should be shunned. Open your eagle wings and fly away, soul. *Odi profanum vulgus!*

The invention of the printing-press, by multiplying the number of volumes, has made the task of selection a difficult one. What to read

what *not* to read, are questions requiring most careful judgment to answer; for, on the one hand, it is not best to condemn utterly a book, which, while it may constantly shock a hypersensitive delicacy, is yet the medium by which great and wholesome truths are expressed; neither, on the other hand, is it expedient, in order to obtain some jewel of truth contained in a book, to burden the mind with an amount of rubbish which shall more than counterbalance in value the modicum of good contained in the one jewel. Better to seek elsewhere for that jewel of truth where its search and finding will not so imperil purity of mind. We are responsible for individual purity and power, and likewise for the health of universal humanity.

An enlarged copy of individual character is the character of the nation. This is bound to that, and literature affects the one through the other, and in like degree. A historical review of the growth of national literatures makes us realize their effect upon national character. By the mighty power of the pen, revolutions have been wrought, laws made and unmade, kingdoms overturned, and the course of civilization shaped. The most careless student of history cannot fail to notice the effect of England's literature upon her national and religious life. Literature made the French Revolution possible. The influence upon the destiny of our own country of one book alone—*Uncle Tom's Cabin*—cannot be estimated. It undoubtedly helped to precipitate a struggle whose glorious end was the abolition of that curse, slavery; though it does seem that by wisdom and love the bitter struggle might have been avoided and the beneficent result effected by less unfraternal means, to the honor and prosperity of the nation. To-day in Russia literature is exerting its power for the cause of liberty.

A taste for the best literature is of special value to *Woman*, not only because her delicate, impressible nature may be more easily injured by worthless or harmful literature than man's, but because to her it is given to shape the destiny of men and of nations through the *Home*, which is the great center and source of strength in both individual and national life. For what is the nation, or indeed the world, but one great family, and in whose hands lies the welfare of the family but in those of woman? Great men make a great nation, and great mothers make great men. Women alone, by Divine appointment, are the home-builders. Men may erect marble palaces, magnificent in design, beautifully poetic in architecture, but they remain cold piles of stone until a woman's consecrated presence transforms them into consecrated homes. The character of the home, its power for good or ill to the nation, will be determined by the character of the woman who makes it; a true culture of head, as well as of heart, is essential to the proper development of the womanly character. She who has for her intimates the noble women of literature,—*Cordelia*, strong in the power to love and be silent,—*Imogen*, forced by cruel circumstances to go out for womanly well-doing into the rude places of the world,—*Portia*, strong in mind, clear in judgment,—*Romola*, pure in heart, spiritual in mind, strong

in womanly self-sacrifice,—the woman who has such associates will inevitably carry into the atmosphere of her home the beneficent influence of that company. Woman does herself and humanity a great wrong by not cultivating a catholicity of taste. She should burn her candles at the shrine of all that is good. Literature addresses itself to no particular sex, but is the sharing of universal mind. Generally speaking, *one* of the purposes of woman's creation is, that she may become not only the companion but the counselor and help-mate of man. There should be nothing humiliating to her in the thought. If man be weak enough to need her, and she strong enough to help him, she has no cause for shame unless she *fail* to help him. Her place is at his side, "under his arm for protection, close to his heart to comfort him." This I have read and the fathers have told me. It is woman's duty to equip herself for this companionship, by acquiring that strength of mind which is to be obtained by intimacy with the best books. We hear much, *too much*, in our day, of the so-called *Woman's Cause*. Discussions which, in the premises, assume a difference between woman's cause and man's, are absurd, unphilosophical, altogether wrong. A correct solution of this much-vexed woman question is to be found in the words of a poet, *living in the true sense of life*:

"The woman's cause is man's ; they rise or sink
 Together, dwarfed or godlike, bond or free ;
 For she that out of Lethe scales with man
 The shining steps of Nature ; shares with man
 His nights, his days ; moves with him to one goal ;
 Stays all the fair young planet in her hands —
 If she be small, slight-natured, miserable,
 How shall men grow ?
 For woman is not undeveloped man,
 But diverse. Could we make her as the man,
 Sweet Love were slain. His dearest bond is this :
 Not like to like, but like in difference.
 Yet in the long years liker must they grow ;
 The man be more of woman, she of man ;
 He gain in sweetness, and in moral height,
 Nor lose the wrestling thews that throw the world ;
 She mental breadth, nor fail in childward care,
 Nor lose the childlike in the larger mind ;
 Till, at the last, she set herself to man,
 Like perfect music unto noble words :
 And so these twain, upon the skirts of Time,
 Sit side by side, full summ'd in all their powers,
 Self-reverent each, and reverencing each ;
 Distinct in individualities,
 But like each other, even as those who love,
 May these things be."

Then let women lead holy lives, and keep their place as helpers, if they would be fair as those sweet women immortalized in song and story.

It is of peculiar importance for Americans to realize the practical value of a taste for good literature, because Americans are preëminently a nation of readers. Our national literature, yet in its infancy, promises a fair and abundant maturity. We may become a nation of writers, if in our characteristic impatience and haste we do not become simply *book-makers* instead of creators of a national literature worthy of the name. While, assuredly, we have some cause for pride, it lies not in the fact that so many thousands of volumes by American authors are annually published. This multiplication of books is an evil of serious magnitude. To counteract this national tendency toward book-making, the home and the school are two important factors whose work must be harmonious. Attention has already been called to the power of the home. As conscientious teachers, we must face the fact that we, through the school, are directly responsible for the formation of pure or impure taste in the young, and indirectly responsible for the character of our national literature; for not only must we train the young mind to know and love the pure and wholesome in literature, and so create an irresistible demand for it, but we must through these same children guide the future American authors into the spirit of reverence and appreciation of a noble trust.

Words, words! What are they? Some of them are fossil poems preserved as nicely as the delicate fern in adamant! Others breathe and burn, and are so vital in the use of a master that it has been said, if cut they would bleed. The student should exercise and demand a most rigid correctness in their use. The inner meaning and the outer form should perfectly *conform*. The knowledge of Nature's laws and phenomena should make us stern in the demand for exactness in representation, and God's revelations to the holy give us a rule by which to measure the demonstration of the supernatural. "If ye abide in *My Word*, ye shall know the *truth*, and the *truth* shall make you *free*."

The crying evil in our nation, in education as in all its work, is *noisy haste*. "Swifter than a weaver's shuttle are our noisy days, and may be without hope." No fruit can ripen in a day or an hour, and the ripening process is never a noisy one. Let each of us take to heart the lesson which the silent, unseen forces of Nature teach, so beautifully expressed by one but recently called to tune his harp in a Better Country:

"One lesson, Nature, let me learn of thee,
One lesson which in every wind is blown,
One lesson of two duties kept at one
Though the loud world proclaim their enmity,—
Of toil unsevered from tranquility,
Of labor, that in lasting fruit outgrows
Far noisier schemes, accomplished in repose,
Too great for haste, too high for rivalry.

Yes, while on earth a thousand discords ring,
 Man's senseless uproar mingling with his toil,
 Still do thy quiet ministers move on,
 Their glorious tasks in silence perfecting;
 Still working, blaming still our vain turmoil,
 Laborers that shall not fail when man is gone."

God has spoken, and has given us a *Word* to keep. To know this *Word* in whom *all words* have life, is the "completed form of all completeness, the high perfection of all sweetness." May we keep that Word, magnifying it in our hearts.

✓ *SHOULD YOUNG GIRLS TO READ THE DAILY NEWSPAPERS?*

W. T. HARRIS, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

✓ It has been claimed that young girls should not be allowed to read the daily newspapers, because there is danger of contamination from this source to their susceptible and unformed characters. The daily press is a mirror, reflecting not only the lofty heights of human achievement, but also the foul and loathsome depths of social degradation. "Evil communications corrupt good manners." Familiarity with descriptions of sin and crime will harden the heart, and blunt the sensibilities.

The daily journal is under the necessity of reporting the news; it must record the events of the day. The large proportion of such events must be negative deeds—deeds that attack the political and social order—that undermine the public morality. Even the best class of newspapers must fill many columns daily with the record of cases of murder, suicide, theft, robbery, drunkenness, fraud, defalcation, hypocrisy, bribery, cruelty to animals, domestic brawls, the sins of lust and incontinence, and often the details of divorce cases. It must print much vulgarity, many examples of bad taste, many utterances that make against religion.

For these reasons, many refined and conscientious parents believe that young people, and especially young girls, should not see the daily newspaper. This measure of prudence seems to us, when we first hear of its justification upon these grounds, a commendable one. It is only after considering it in its results, and after comparing them with the highest ideal standard of human character, that we come to distrust it altogether.

The abstract soul, isolated from all knowledge of sin, clad in white-robed innocence, "unsoiled by contact with this world," seems angelic only to a spurious mysticism. It is not Christianity in its full maturity. Christ went about among publicans and sinners and called the wicked to repentance. His followers, like Saint Francis of Assisi, descend to the lowest and foulest places of humanity in order to lift up the fallen and recall the erring.

To keep what is pure apart from what is impure and thus to preserve it from contamination is not the true Christian doctrine. Divine charity, the missionary spirit that descends into the Infernos of vice—not to sin but to save sinners—the missionary spirit that sacrifices all selfishness, all ease and comfort, even the environment of heaven and the association with the angelic choirs, in order to convert the wicked and turn the evil from their ways—this and this alone is after the pattern of the founder of Christianity.

In order to work in the spirit of Christianity, one must learn to know what he can do to make the world better. He must learn to know the ideals of goodness and eternal beauty. But he must study also the ways of evil and temptation. If one has no temptations, he has nothing to resist, and can never develop true strength of character. Plant your oak in a flower pot and shield it from the winds and the tempests by the walls of a hot-house—that is not the way to produce the oak that can resist the storms of a thousand years.

It is not this abstract, flower-pot species of education that is to develop Christian character in our young men nor in our young women. They must be gradually inured to contact with the world. They must learn to know evil by seeing it. They must be taught to hate evil, but not merely to hate it—they must learn to love the sinner while they hate the sin. Divine pity must inspire them to help those in need.

The wise parent therefore will have none of this flower-pot prudence, but will accustom his daughters by degrees to the spectacle of the world as it is, and seek most of all to make them strong against temptation, and yet without self-righteousness.

The conscious virtue which daintily picks her way through the world, gathering up her skirts lest they be soiled by contact with her fallen sisters, is not on her way towards heaven, but downward to that Lake Cocytus where Dante has placed those souls frozen with spiritual pride—the Pharisaic souls that thank God that they are not as other men are, and that feel themselves to belong to a caste apart from the rest of humanity.

Blessed are the poor in spirit—those who study the condition of the fallen and degraded in order to lift them up again!

But how is it with the newspaper which holds its mirror up to nature, and shows us this world in its deformity as well as in its beauty? It is the grand instrumentality of education in our Christian civilization. It is doing more than all else to make real throughout the world the feeling of brotherhood among men.

To each reader it offers every morning the spectacle of the entire world. Mounted, as it were, on a high throne, each man can behold his greater self—the self of humanity in the aggregate—with all its nations and peoples, under all climes, and in every stage of development; he can behold this stupendous revelation of human nature moving onward toward its goal. Divine Providence governs history, and it is an easy lesson to see the rev-

elation of the divine in great historic movements while we can hardly discern its traces in village life at our feet.

The daily newspaper has supplanted, in our time, that painful village gossip—the gossip of the alehouse and the family circle. It has interested us all, young and old, in world gossip—the march of humanity toward the far-off divine event. It has replaced the prosaic scandal of the neighborhood by the epic story of the deeds of the race.

Who can so isolate his children that they will escape the gossip of the neighborhood, and never hear of scandal? And yet the wise parent sees to it that a lofty and pure ideal makes itself felt in the presence of such gossip. The child who hears the gossip finds the antidote in the pure atmosphere of home influence.

The parent does not expect that his children shall escape the spectacle of sin, but he takes care that it shall not allure them. The immoral book is not the book that shows sin in its true light, but the one that shows the sweets of sin without its consequences. The Bible gives us portrayals of all kinds of sins, but shows their sequels in wretchedness, pain, and death. The Bible is moral not because it omits all mention of scandals, but because it gives complete pictures of their evil consequences. The partial account of evil that omits its natural results is immoral.

Now the daily newspaper is interested to record the apprehension and punishment of crime rather than the bare fact of its commission. It arouses public opinion against the criminals. Even when our statute laws are so imperfect as to allow the apprehended criminal to escape, it is the daily newspaper that pursues him with the edict of banishment. It drives him forth from the face of society as the divine decree drove forth Cain of old.

The newspaper realizes and expresses the great power of public opinion and uses it effectively as a punishment of crime. It is the great social Nemesis.

The divinest fact in society is that of vicarious suffering. Each human being participates in the wisdom of the race and learns through the successes and failures of others. What one does in this world is not alone for himself, but likewise for his fellow-men. If he achieves a lofty success, he teaches his aspiring neighbors how to do the like. If he makes dangerous experiments in the direction of sin, or crime, or immorality, or bad economy he demonstrates to all beholders the impossibility of success on that road. It is unnecessary for them to make the same experiments in their own wisdom. His failure is vicarious, and answers for them too. His obvious disaster marks the by-path of error with the plain words, "No thoroughfare."

Participation is the great fact of human spiritual life, and our religion makes vicarious suffering the supreme condition of salvation. It is not, we see, alone the fact that the good suffer for the wicked, but in this world Providence has decreed that the wicked vicariously help their good fellow-men *by the spectacle of their own disasters*. The broader the view the truer the

vision. Each event when seen in the world-view appears in its just relations. In that view the deed appears in the perspective of its consequences. And I affirm that the daily newspaper is struggling towards this grand consummation—to present to each individual every morning a survey of the entire world of humanity—to interest each man in his community, in his nation and in all nations—to realize, in short, the brotherhood of all rational beings.

Under no conceivable circumstances can the young girl learn to know the world as it is, in a safer mode than through the window of the daily newspaper. She sees the moral spectacle of sinners pursued by avenging demons of the law and of public opinion. If she contemplates too steadily the pictures of degradation and begins to be fascinated by them, she betrays the tendency to her mother or to some member of the family and a counter-influence begins its healing work at once. If she grows up in ignorance until she encounters the vicious reality in later life, she is not prepared for it, and falls an easy victim to the allurements of sin. Such is the lesson of seclusion and restraint for young girls, and abstract isolation of their schools produces the life of intrigue described in French novels.

It does not follow from my theory of the newspaper that all newspapers are equally good. The *Police Gazette* species should be avoided as rank poison, for it gives one-sided views of crime and often describes it from the criminal's point of view. It does not place it in the perspective of the events of the world as does the good daily newspaper. Even the best journals find room for improvement. But as they are and as they have been, it is best and it has been best that young girls should have free access to them under the surveillance of the family. The girl or the boy that grows up in our day and generation without free access to the newspapers certainly will miss the most important instrumentality for self-knowledge and for knowledge of mankind.

DISCUSSION.*

J. H. PAUL, OF UTAH: The subject and paper to which I was requested to direct myself is that offered by Dr. Scudder, of Massachusetts—The Place of Literature in Common-School Education.

The general conclusions at which the gentleman arrived are so in harmony with my own views that I certainly cannot differ with him when he claims that *the* great place of literature in a common-school education is to refine and exalt the spiritual nature of children. In our eager haste for *facts* in the school-room we have overlooked the higher phases of being inherent in our race. Thomas Gradgrind has, I think, presided long enough over the destinies of the youth; and we are awakening to the fact that beauty and ideality *must not be sacrificed* on the altar of a mistaken idea.

* Stenographer's report.

of utility. Unless the mind conceives those higher ideas which, though it cannot half express, yet it cannot all conceal, it will not well rise above mediocrity. And the mind can conceive those ideas in no other way that I know of so readily and forcibly as by communion with the sympathetic minds of great English writers.

Who is there that cannot recall to mind the inspiration he received from his early-learnt rhymes? Who does not yet love to repeat the lines:

"Here rests his head upon the lap of earth,
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown" ?

Why, even that stanza that is generally omitted from this wonderful elegy returns to my memory again and again:

"There scattered oft, the earliest of the year."

And who can say that the time consumed in learning that elegant production was not better spent than on the simple tales of kind-hearted nurses? But some will say, that when the child first reads that poem he does not fully understand it. Granted. But he appreciates some of it, and this very appreciation is the ennobling element. But there are also plenty of simple pieces written in good English. Many of the best authors have written especially for children. Let us use the products of their genius.

I think the study of literature should be the most important of all the school studies. It may and often does largely take the place of several minor branches, as grammar and composition, geography, history, etc. The study of English classics gives the pupil at least a good speaking acquaintance with his mother-tongue. It teaches him, more vividly than the text-book can teach him, the useful facts of geography, the striking episodes of history, and the personal character of the great men and women of the past. To study minutely the meaning of a really profound and brilliant writer is one of the very best kinds of training a boy or girl can receive at school. It gives the best lessons to be learned in life, and without dangerous experience. As a mental discipline it is second only to mathematics; and I am half inclined to think, that if we taught only these two as specialties in schools, we should achieve greater results, and with vastly less effort. What can we not learn, and learn with pleasure, in the study of literature? Here we learn classic English—strong and gentle, harsh and smooth, barren and florid; here we meet with short, pithy expressions, embodying the wit and wisdom of ages; here descriptions of men, of passions, of human interests, hopes, and aims; we are fascinated, instructed, ennobled, at the same time. Here virtue is seen at its best, vice at its worst. If we extend the meaning of the term a little, so as to include other writings than *belles lettres*, we shall find, that except the mathematical sciences, which cannot be studied in this way, we may receive instruction upon almost all branches of human knowledge. I well remember when we had the old Wilson readers in the schools: they were simply wonder-books. We read with unceasing delight of apes,

monkeys, bears, lions, tigers and camels in our Third Reader, and listened with open-mouthed wonder to the descriptions of birds by the classes in the Fourth Reader, climbing on the benches to look over their shoulders at the long-legged cranes, the mighty eagles, and the tiny humming-birds. Can we not again read natural history, and along with it biography, travels, morals, light science, poetry, and the drama, all in the reading courses of the common schools? We should discard the colloquial dialect of Tom, Dick, and Harry, so prevalent in readers, to give place to the works of gifted writers, who alone are competent to furnish book-companions for the assimilation and imitation of our young people. And, for the double purpose of lightening the labor of teachers and of raising the pupils to a higher plane of thought and action, I express the hope, which I know is widespread, that the genius and taste of a Wilson may unite with the scholarship of a Monroe, Watson, or Swinton, and with the practical wisdom of a Parker, in producing for the present generation of school children such an opportunity to study literature in the common schools. We should have children study literature for its own sake; it is a vast treasure of truth, and beauty, and utility. They should study it for their own sake; it cannot fail to make them better. They should study it as a duty they owe to God and to their fellow-men; it will increase their power of doing good, and it will afford them copious draughts of that intelligence which flows, as I believe, by the direction of infinite wisdom, from the noblest men and women of our race.

D. B. PARKINSON, OF ILLINOIS: It may be said to the credit of the teacher's profession, that quite all the advancement made in the science and art of Pedagogy comes directly through the teacher himself. And, strange as it may seem, but few of these progressive steps look to a more liberal compensation for services rendered, other than that they enable the public to recognize the value of the teacher's work touching the general welfare of the commonwealth.

All studies of child-nature and the development of his powers are the outgrowth of the spirit of inquiry, and an earnest desire to arrive at the truth and the best methods of securing the highest type of results.

It may be further stated, that the teacher is quick to discern merit in the new, and recognize defects in the old.

While marked progress has been made along this line of investigation, there is a deep conviction that we are far from the acme of perfection; that we have not reached all that is within our grasp in the sphere of mind-training and character-building.

The theme before us considers that phase of the work that lies at the foundation of all: it truly is the substratum of the entire structure. It is the avenue through which all else must pass: it is the "Golden Gate" to the Pacific ocean of man's mental activities.

If we have not attained unto the most perfect methods, where shall we go for light? There is surely an anomaly in the Executive Committee of the

National Educational Association going to Egypt, not the Egypt of the Dark Continent, but the Egypt of the Sucker State, and not only to this Egypt, but to a laboratory, amidst its theories of atoms and molecules, its alchemistic problems, its weird lights, its demon-like mutterings and purgatorial smells, for enlightenment upon a theme so lofty in its conceptions, so far-reaching in its possibilities.

However, whatever affects the children of our land is of intense interest to every lover of the human family. The eye of all civilized people is focused upon the welfare of the child as never before. Why? Because men are learning that whatever is of vital interest to the nation is affected by the conditions of her children. These have to do with the beginnings of her people in thought and character. These are supreme in importance.

"Practical Methods of Using Literature in Teaching Children to Read." The paper read upon this theme states the following purposes of reading in the school: To give the ability to read aloud; to develop the power to read mentally; and to cultivate the reading habit.

These indeed look to the training of the vocal organs, the power of correct expression, and the proper habits of reading. Mr. Chairman, is it not within the scope of the theme to consider the interest of the child regarding what he should *be* as well as what he should *do*? If so, the following aims have much value in shaping the plans and directing the prosecution of the reading exercises in the school and the home: To select such literature as will enable the child to acquire such a knowledge of those facts of the material world about him as will be most helpful later in his school work, and in after life; to aid the child to distinguish between right and wrong, the true and the false touching the relations of life; to direct the child in his choices and strengthen him in his will-power; to assist the child in acquiring an appreciation of the beautiful, the pure and the good in literature; to arouse and nurture a love of home and country; to awaken and foster the religious sentiment, at least to the recognition of, and fealty to, the Supreme Being. These aims will affect in no small measure the matter and method used in conducting the reading-work of the child.

Our teaching must look farther than the training of the powers of body and brain. The need of the hour, especially in our land of vast territory, immense wealth, marvelous resources, enormous numbers and varied nationalities of her people,—the need of the hour is self-acting, self-regulating, living forces in the individual who is actuated by the highest impulses, and guided by such counsel as will enable him to meet the demands of the age and the race.

The value of these conditions aimed at is readily appreciated, and needs but few words of amplification.

Much valuable knowledge of nature may be gathered by the child during his early reading-work by the use of such matter as is presented in Mr. Johonnet's series of readers, such as "Our Friends in Furs and Feathers;"

of history by reading the "History of the United States in One Syllable;" of story by reading "Robinson Crusoe in One Syllable;" and many other books of like character.

The teacher in charge of the Training Department of the Southern Illinois Normal University reports very gratifying results from the use of such reading-matter as supplementary to the numbered readers in use. She does not recommend the discarding of the graded readers, but favors the liberal use of such literature as will give the variety needed, and such knowledge as will prove of the greatest benefit in the upper grades. The same teacher states that the children look forward with delight to the time when they have earned, by diligent use of the graded readers, the privilege to read by sight such pieces, about which they have previously conversed so as to be familiar with the meaning of the words used.

Even those who deny the moral depravity of man admit that the child ✓ needs instruction concerning the questions of right and wrong, the true and the false, in the home, in the social world, and in the affairs of government. It is a mistake to leave these lessons for the Sunday school and the pulpit, or the specific study of ethics with the doctors of philosophy.

There are opportunities without number when the teacher, especially in ✓ the reading exercises, may enforce these practical lessons so as to have a positive effect upon the whole being.

The same may be said with reference to their ability to choose and the strengthening of their power to will.

Every close observer of the habits of the child has noted the wonderful power of the child to execute when he has willed to do, especially in the field of material contrivances. But in the matter of doing what he knows to be right and is contrary to his wishes, he is weak. May he not be strengthened during his training years for these emergencies? Would there not be far less of the smoking of cigarettes and cigars, less tipping of the decanter, less giving way on every hand among our young people, were the teachings of our schools more helpful in strengthening the will-power of the children?

Mr. Depew, in his late speech at Syracuse, N. Y., gave as the secret of financial success this motto, which depends upon will-power more than upon anything else: "Stick, dig, and save."

The youth who in school learns self-control, has learned one of the most valuable lessons of life. Should not the school look to this phase of self-regulating citizenship?

Mr. Soldan of St. Louis says: "Education should develop ethical character. The practical ethical ideas are: rectitude and vigor of will; charity, or love; devotion to the interest of civilized life."

Children should learn at an early age that doing according to law, in the home, in society, in business, and in the world at large, brings with it success and triumph; that doing contrary to law just as surely brings with it failure and defeat.

It will be granted that our peculiar form of government and conditions of nationality demand that our people be strengthened in their love of home and sentiment of patriotism.

The schools of America, in their tendencies and teachings, should be decidedly *American*. The imminent dangers arising from our vast foreign element may be largely averted by instilling into the hearts of the native-born and foreign-born children a profound respect for our American institutions, a reverence for the stars and stripes.

The reading-matter and the songs of the schools of the land should be laden with the spirit of loyalty, which, should the occasion demand, will burst forth as a passion of patriotism that sweeps over the entire land, and carries victory before it—such a passion as was exhibited a quarter of a century ago and gave to the world the heroic deeds of the gallant Logan and thousands of other volunteer soldiers.

Ruskin says that patriotism is a kingly virtue.

“Home, Sweet Home” and “My Country, ’tis of Thee” should echo and reëcho over our entire domain until our children and youth regard the hearthstone and native land dearer than life itself.

A liberal use of the American classics in the reading exercises will do much in securing this most essential feature of American citizenship.

Mr. H. E. Scudder in the *Atlantic Monthly* of last year says: “It is not the ‘Golden Texts,’ so called, which animate the religious mind; it is the free use of the whole Bible. And the literature of America, taken in its large and comprehensive sense, is worth vastly more to American boys and girls than any collection that may be made from it of ‘Memory Gems.’”

Mr. Scudder further says in this connection: “If love of country is something more than a creature’s instinct for self-preservation, if it be inwoven with love of righteousness and the passion for redeemed humanity, then it may be cultivated and strengthened, and should not be left to the caprice of fortune.”

Again, the reading in our schools and homes comes short of perfect results unless the children are given the power to appreciate the beautiful, the pure and the good in thought and word, as well as in morals. With this capacity enlarged as it may be, what stores of mental pleasure and soul enjoyment are opened to the student of choice literature!

What a safeguard it is to the youth of any age or country to have the companionship of those who have possessed the best thoughts of the race, from the time of Homer to the present! What a possession is the desire for all that is beautiful, pure and good in the Grecian Mythology, poetry and philosophy; in the Roman oratory and history, and in the English and American classics! Is this too much to hope for, to plan for? Surely not. By careful guidance in this matter the child and the youth may be led into these delectable fields; and while they may not understand all (their older brothers and sisters do not understand all), they will find in them their *greatest* mental enjoyment; and in later years, laden with the cares and

toils of life, will delight to return to the fountain of intellectual waters for a refreshing draught.

The reading exercises of the school may do even more than these: they may awaken and foster the religious sentiment, at least to the recognition of and fealty to the Supreme Being. He who passes his school days and has not learned to revere the Creator of his own being can scarcely be expected to entertain the spirit of obedience toward the authority of the home, and of the municipal and national governments.

Men who believe in no Designer of the Universe and no hereafter, and that affected by moral conduct in this life, are the men who resort to dynamite to adjust their grievances, real or imagined.

Crush out the religious sentiment of our people and the Haymarket tragedy of Chicago, and the recent diabolical plot of that city, may become a thing of common occurrence.

Let the atheist say what he will, our American people cannot afford to allow the teachings of the infidel to crush out the idea that the God of nations must be honored. In spite of the predictions of the sages of the Orient, this nation need have no fear that she will crumble into ruin because of her own weight, so long as her people live in loyal subjection to the Ruler of the Universe. He who guides the worlds in their courses through space can easily lead our nation safely through the ages, so long as His name is sacred in the hearts of her people.

What is it that ever revolutionizes the world in its thought and conduct? It is not the politician. It is not the statesmen, even. It is the leaven of right-thinking, of right-doing of the mass of her people. These quiet forces, acting with the lever of God's providence, are steadily lifting the race higher and higher, until in the appointed time our humanity will reach the summit of its glory.

"Do not sin against the child," by underestimating his ability to appreciate and comprehend the better class of composition. Without doubt we have done him serious injury by furnishing him reading-matter far below his capacity.

The clergyman is often accused of putting the fodder too high in the rack in feeding his flock. The opposite charge may justly be laid at the door of the teacher and parent.

The writer of this paper knows of a little boy, who, in his sixth year, asked that he might, upon going to bed, be allowed to repeat the "Lord's Prayer" instead of "Now I lay me down to sleep," which he had been accustomed to say from the time he began to talk. The former he had learned by hearing it repeated in the Sunday School and church services. This case is cited to illustrate the error made by parents in undervaluing the mental grasp of their children. Adults are simply grown boys and girls; and there is not so vast an intellectual chasm between them as men first supposed.

If this is true, the statement signifies much in connection with the reading in the schools.

A high-school teacher of Illinois states that his pupils grow enthusiastic over such master-pieces as *Fairy Queen*, *Essay on Man*, *The Bunker Hill Orations*, *Childe Harold*, *The Two Voices*, and others of like character. He states further: "I have found my pupils aroused to admiration of the heroic, the good, the beautiful and the true; and equally incited to earnest condemnation of the mean, the unworthy, the impure and the sensual in literature."

Much profit will arise from the use of ingenious contrivances showing the relation of the earlier and later writings. The "logical sequence," as worked out by Miss Burt, of Illinois, exhibiting the development, growth, and evolution of literature, must necessarily be very helpful. Miss Burt says on this subject: "There is no doubt that there should be a graded course of literature in our schools in place of what is now called 'Reading'—a course in which the myth or fairy story shall inevitably lead on to the thing that belongs next to it, so that when a boy leaves school at the age of ten, he shall carry with him the power and the wish to develop what he has already begun."

It may be urged that the use of suitable literature for the reading in the schools will be burdensome on account of the expense. With the demand for publications will soon come the supply. Already some of our enterprising houses are providing excellent editions for this purpose. Others will follow, and soon there will be furnished all that is required and at reasonable cost.

Before closing the discussion of the excellent paper, allow me to commend most heartily the suggestion of Mr. Halsey that children should be encouraged to purchase books of their own, and begin the selection of a library. Also the importance of giving proper direction to the reading of children both at school and in the home. The home should not be divorced from the school, more particularly in this matter of reading. The one should supplement the other. Children should be encouraged to talk and write of what they read around the family circle and at the family board. They should be taught to see that a thought, like a child, appears all the more attractive when clothed in a beautiful dress.

In the judgment of the writer, "The Children's Reading Circle" may be so operated as to be a decided help to our children in the matter under discussion.

The human family, large and small, delight in doing what their neighbors aspire to; they are ambitious in keeping up with their fellows in laudable undertakings.

"The Teachers' Reading Circle," "The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle," and "The International Sunday-School Lessons" are examples of what may be accomplished through organizations to bring about a desired end in reading.

Nothing will so develop the ability in thought-reading as the free use of literature in the work of the school-room; nothing will so add to the conditions of general culture as the formation of a correct reading habit; nothing will so prepare the child for the higher forms of citizenship as a frequent use of the entire classics, more especially of the American classics.

I close by quoting Mr. Scudder in his noble defense of the American classics in our schools: "Think for a moment of that great, silent, resistless power for good which might at this moment be lifting the youth of the country, were the hours for reading in school expended upon the undying, life-giving books. Think of the substantial growth of a generous Americanism, were the boys and girls to be fed from the fresh springs of American literature. It would be no narrow provincialism into which they would emerge. The windows of Longfellow's mind look to the East, and the children who have entered into the possession of his wealth travel far. Bryant's flight carries one through upper air, over broad champaigns. The lover of Emerson has learned to get a far vision. The companion of Thoreau finds Concord suddenly become the center of a very wide horizon. Irving has annexed Spain to America. Hawthorne has nationalized the gods of Greece, and given an atmosphere to New England. Whittier has translated the Hebrew Scriptures into the American dialect. Lowell gave the American boy an academy without cutting down a stick of timber in the grove, or disturbing the birds. Holmes supplies that hickory which makes one careless of the crackling of thorns. Franklin makes the America of a past generation a part of the great world before treaties had bound the floating states into formal connection with venerable nations. What is all this but saying that the rich inheritance which we have is no local ten-acre lot, but a part of the undivided estate of humanity?

"Universality, cosmopolitanism,—these are fine words, but no man ever secured the freedom of the universe who did not first pay taxes and vote in his own village."

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, OF MISSOURI: Mr. President, I will take a few moments to speak on the subject of Literature and Reading, from the teacher's standpoint, referring particularly to some suggestions made in regard to the composition of reading-books. I will direct my remarks to the suggestion made, that the literature should introduce the pupil to the affairs of life as they will be met; that it is to supplement instruction in geography, in history, in natural science, etc. While I do not differ in regard to the proposition that the reader may treat these topics, yet I differ radically from the gentleman if he wishes to leave the impression that these topics should form the principal part of our school readers. Instruction, constantly and of necessity, in all other branches points to the affairs and the walks of this life. It brings down the pupil's glance to this life; but there should be one study, at least, standing over against all the other studies, in which the pupil's glance is directed not simply to the affairs of this life, but his glance

should be directed at the great world within him and the world above; that I hold, is the chief office of reading in the public schools. The great spiritual world in man and above man should be opened to the boy and the girl, and all other things in connection with reading are of secondary importance.

I wish to add in the same line a word in regard to the recommendation contained in one of the papers—excellent as the recommendation is in itself—*i. e.*, that references historical, geographical, grammatical, should be connected with the reading lesson. But let us beware of one extreme—namely, of too many external things; let us not add so much that is extraneous to the subject, that the main object is lost sight of, which should be the waking-up of the spirit within. I believe that in reading, classical literature should form the main part of the readers, but I believe the reader of the future has not yet been written. We have no readers, as far as we know, that are equal to those great French readers, those great German readers in which the attempt has been made to search all the great authors of the language in order to find what can profitably be embodied in the Second and Third Readers. The authors writing for the English tongue have written, not simply for the adult—they have written for the children as well. Listening to one of the papers, it struck me as if the mistake was made of supposing that an author was classical—acknowledged to be classical—on account of his style; but if you will permit me I would say a author is equally classical on account of the general human interest that he embodies in the substance of what he says, and that his style is of secondary importance. I believe in a reader that appeals to the spiritual in our children. I think we should teach them to find in the reader, not simply something to know, but something to feel, something to appreciate. The main aim should be to interest them not in the grammatical expression, not so much in the style, important as those considerations are, but rather to introduce them to the spirit of the author, and to open to them that grand human world which they will enter when they leave school. The teacher's work should be to so open up the imagination in the reading-lesson that the roof of the school-house opens up, and the pupil can look out into the clear blue sky above and see endless pleasure and endless joy in reading. To teach an interest in reading, to make them love reading—this I believe is of more importance than grammatical expression and mere style.

ZALMON RICHARDS, OF WASHINGTON: Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: I did not expect to speak, but as Professor Soldan always hits the mark and throws a spark, I feel inclined to say a word. I want to ask the question: How many of the pupils that leave our public schools can read in the true sense of the word? How many of them are prepared to take up the great literary works which have been mentioned and derive any satisfaction from them? It seems to me that to us, as educators, there is a question deeper and more far-reaching than the questions which we have had heretoday, important as they are. I fully agree with most of the points that have

been made, but believe that the first thing necessary with us as educators is to teach children to read so that they can pick up a book, read it, understand it, and derive satisfaction from it. But in nine cases out of ten, I venture to say, the pupils who leave our public schools cannot appreciate the language of the books and the sentiment of the authors. The first thing is to teach them to understand, not simply to become familiar with words. We make a mistake if we think we have got to introduce literature, or particular literary works, into our school. They really go to make scholars out of the pupils. There is a necessity for a child to understand a word when he sees it, and to appreciate the relation which that word may have to another word. The great work for the teacher to perform is to make the child see the relation of words. I presume every teacher has found that his children are unable to understand him when he undertakes to talk to them, simply because they do not understand the relation of one word to another, or to many others. Then there is the construction of words into sentences, which seems to me to be one of the most important portions of training; and as teachers it is our business, rather than going up into the high regions of literature, to consider these matters of primary importance.

Then I come to another point alluded to by Professor Soldan—the advantages of reading; of becoming familiar with great minds. But we must make our pupils familiar with the language of the books which we use in the schools before they can study those books. Nine-tenths of the children in our public schools begin the study of geography, I think, before they can comprehend the meaning of the terms that are there; so with regard to other branches. Then we want the children to be trained in the language of the books which are to be used in the schools. Here are three grades of training which it seems to me are essential for every teacher to bear in mind: First, a knowledge of the words and their meaning; second, the relation of the words to each other in the construction of sentences; and, third, the meaning of the terms that enter into the various branches of study which the child is to pursue in after life. Make him familiar with these terms; make him familiar with the words and the construction of sentences, and then he is prepared to go into the higher realm of literature, and take up these masterly works and study them with profit, but not until then. That is my doctrine.

T. M. MARSHALL, OF NEW MEXICO: Mr. President, did you ever see one coming from the coal mine that he was not blackened? or one from any other source of contamination that the marks of it were not upon him? Remember Pope's lines:

"Vice is a monster of such hideous mien,
That to be hated needs but to be seen;
Yet seen too oft, familiar with its face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace."

And on the other hand, it is true that in this world we cannot escape

much that is contaminating. We can hardly shut out the daily newspaper with all its sickening and blackening details, but it would be far better for the younger people if it could be so until they reach almost the age of maturity. There is an abundance of literature that is lofty, that is instructive, that is moral in its tendency, that can take the place of those newspapers that are not what they should be. The papers are too often filled with impurities: certainly the public press is not always, probably not often, all in the way of moral sentiment that it might be. There is one paper in the city of New York, I believe, that has attempted to make it a point to show up the world, without specially showing its sensual features, and its blackest spots; and it is to be hoped that in all the other great cities similar great newspapers will be started and supported.

There is another thing. This question of whether our girls should read the daily papers involves the old story that there is one standard of morality for men and another for women. I despise it, I detest it. If the daily paper is not fit for the young woman to read, it is not fit for the young man to read. I believe in that morality which is morality, and not that which has its basis upon the ideas of this sex or that sex. I believe that those things which may be introduced into the homes for one member of the family, may be introduced into the homes for all members of the family. The question is not then to my mind whether the daily paper may be excluded from the home or not, but it is, which daily paper you will select, and whether you will put the ban upon those which make it a point to gather up a very large part of the blackness of this life and put it in print before you? We have in our hands the moulding, to some extent, of the daily press. I remember a prominent educator in Pittsburg many years ago who remarked of the two great dailies in that city to this effect, that there was one that specially pandered to all these things sensual, sickening, debauching and lowering in morality and in life, and that there had been made an attempt to suppress it; but the low moral standard and vitiated tastes of the great mass of people were such that it had the greatest patronage, while the paper that opposed it, though some of the people of the city attempted to sustain it, had not more than half the support of the other, because of the difference in the tastes of the people. This clearly shows that the majority was on the lower side.

Now I think that in a measure like this the principal question is, How can we elevate the taste; how can we destroy the liking for this lower literature to such an extent as will make it profitable, popular and necessary to publish a higher-grade paper? That is our point, I take it, in this question whether the girls shall read the daily newspapers, or not. The thing to do is to supervise our newspaper literature. In this case, if in any case in the world, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." It was suggested, that if the girls in the family take a desire to read the dark part of the daily paper rather than the pure parts, they would understand what to avoid; but

I fear it will then be in a measure too late to reform the taste. The time to avoid this evil is before the taste is formed.

I will close by saying that of course we cannot shut out the daily paper. We cannot shut it out from our daughters any more than we can from our sons. It is necessary for all to read it if they would be citizens. But we can do a great deal by moulding a taste for pure literature.

7 — N. E. A.

**THEME: HOW CAN OUR SCHOOLS BEST PREPARE LAW-ABIDING
AND LAW-RESPECTING CITIZENS?**

THE DISCIPLINE MOST VALUABLE TO THIS END.

DUNCAN BROWN, HIGHLAND, KANSAS.

What discipline in our schools is most valuable to prepare law-abiding and law-reverencing citizens?

First, who are citizens? Citizens are men, and in Kansas, Wyoming, and the Prohibition Party, women, owing allegiance to a government, under which they have certain rights and privileges, and are bound both legally and morally to perform certain duties.

One of these duties is to render cheerful obedience to the laws made by their legally constituted representatives in State and Nation. Cheerful obedience includes reverence for the authority of law in general, and a readiness to abide by any law in particular until it is changed by the proper authority; provided, always, that it does not require the individual to do what his conscience condemns as morally wrong.

Law-reverencing citizens will not "lightly speak evil of dignities," or censure or ridicule a law because it is not just such as they would like, because it was made by some opposing political party. Neither will they speak sneeringly of law in general, or of any proper legal authority.

Law-abiding citizens will not only themselves obey the laws, in letter and spirit, but will use their influence to have others do likewise. They will not ignore a law or oppose its execution because it is contrary to their ideas, or against their supposed business interests, but will uphold, and when necessary assist in enforcing all laws, as long as they are on the statute book.

They will not try to avoid duty as witnesses, or jurymen, and when called to act in either capacity they will give honest testimony and honest verdicts. If elected or appointed to any official position, they will perform duties fearlessly and faithfully. They will pay their taxes without evasion or grumbling, and will not shirk any duty which their country requires of them.

This is a high standard of citizenship, and of course it may be open to possible exceptions in particular cases. But I think the rule is none the less high. Certainly we should like very much to see other people follow such a rule, even if we claim that our cases are among the exceptions.

How shall we prepare such citizens? Home, Society, Church and School

all have a part in the work. That of the school is probably more important than any one, possibly more than all the others.

The Home, as the earliest fountain of influence, is entitled to the first mention. "As the twig is bent, the tree is inclined." Perhaps if more twigs were bent in the proper direction, and with sufficient force and frequency, in the home, the young trees growing up would oftener have the proper inclination before their crooks had hardened into maturity. Of course this is mixing things a little in the figure, but a little more mixing of twigs and children in this way might produce good results. At any rate, as the cautious Scotch minister said to the wealthy sinner who asked if giving \$10,000 to the church would make his soul any safer, I think the experiment would be worth trying. Society also has a part in training youth to obey or disregard the laws. So many people "follow the crowd." If society upholds or applauds lawbreakers, of course they will increase in numbers and in lawlessness. False ideas of liberty and law are responsible for many a riot. The Anarchists of Chicago have never been trained—in home, society, church, or school—to reverence or obey the laws.

The Church, as representing, in some sort at least, the authority of Divine law, has an important part in educating all under its influence to reverence and obey authoritative human laws. The Apostle Paul recognizes and urges this in writing to the Christians at Rome, and exemplifies it, both by appealing to the Roman law for protection and by suffering punishment under it uncomplainingly, however undeserved on his part.

Now, how can our schools best coöperate with the Home, Society, and the Church, in preparing the best possible citizens? or if any one of these fail in its part, how can we best supply the deficiency?

We have already had before us "the knowledge most valuable to this end," as the root, or, perhaps I should say, as the trunk of the matter. The culture, as the bloom, or fruit, is to come later. My task is to present, in a measure at least, the connecting link between them, which, if you please, you may call the branches.

Now we *may* have branches of knowledge and of culture, but we *must* have branches, and good stout ones, too, somewhere in reach, for the full application of discipline. A prairie State like Kansas might have trouble here, but surely California, with its forests of "big trees," ought to have no trouble. It has been said that the branch most neglected in our modern schools is the Birch, but I see no reason why the Hickory may not do as well. True, it may generally be best to use it only as a "pointer," but its aim should be so clear that every student will see the point, or at least, like the man who sat down on the cat, be sure it is there.

What discipline is most valuable in our schools, to make good citizens? When shall it begin? How long shall it be continued? How shall it be administered?

Naturally, the first thought brought to our minds by the word, is that of

punishment; but this is neither the root thought, nor its most important element. Still, the idea of a penalty of some kind must be at least an adjunct in all really effective discipline. The primary thought in the word "discipline" is "learning;" not the noun, but the participle. What kind of treatment or training is best suited to a learner, or disciple, to make him a good citizen?

To be a successful learner in this direction, one must either bind himself or be bound in some way, to follow some definite lines.

True education implies the development or leading-out of the faculties of mind and body, by instruction and exercise. True discipline implies the training of the ear, the eye, the hand, and the mind, to obey the will, the will to obey the conscientious dictates of the judgment, and all these to acknowledge and obey proper authority. Such discipline must begin with the teacher, for one must be able to train and control himself before he can control and train others.

The student thus trained will be prepared to take, and fill, any place or position to which he, or (in Kansas, Wyoming, and the Prohibition Party) she, may be called, whether as a leader, to command, or as a private citizen, to obey. Good citizens are needed alike in both places.

Genuine discipline is a training that takes time, often many years, to bring to maturity. It is a composite process, made up of many elements,—a growth rather than a manufacture. Details must vary with the circumstances, but genuine love for the pupil, patient persistence in training, a true example, and the will to be obeyed, should be cardinal points with every teacher. This is a very different thing from merely keeping order in the school-room; but it is correspondingly more important and valuable. The real question is not, How can I make Johnnie and Susie behave well during this term of school? but, How can I do most to make my pupils true men and women?

Four points seem to me to be worthy of special attention:

1. The first and most important, I think, lies in expecting invariable submission to what is required, *because it is required*. Quiet, but absolute, firmness is needed, just at this point, for if this is lost all is lost. It is the business of the teacher to make regulations, and the duty of the student to obey them.

The boy who, seeking a place, was asked what he knew how to do, and answered, "I know enough to do what I am told," was immediately employed. Such boys will always be in demand, and they are likely to make men who will not have to advertise for places. They will also make the best men, by-and-by, to tell others what to do.

The student who must have all his "whys" in regard to a rule satisfied before he will obey it, is liable to become a troublesome and dangerous citizen, unwilling to obey, and still more unwilling to enforce, a law he does not like. In Chicago he becomes an Anarchist or is hung, or a politician, and by some inscrutable providence is elected Mayor, (not Governor, however.)

He may even make speeches on the "Mistakes of Moses," forgetting the mistakes of Ingersoll, till he is reminded of them by the jeers and hisses of a Chicago convention audience, and the great ridiculer learns how ridicule feels when applied to himself. In Kansas he becomes a saloon-keeper, or a horse-thief, and writes letters (from the county jail or the State penitentiary) telling what a failure prohibition is,—that is, the saloon-keeper does; the horse-thief, when found, is generally too much in a state of suspense to write many letters in California,—but perhaps the stern discipline of the Forty-niners made it unpleasant for him to stay in this region. If he were here, however, we might call him "hoodlum" while a boy: as a man, his name is not "Eli." Possibly the sailors might say "His name is Dennis." I think that we already have as many citizens of that kind as we care to support.

Given the moral and legal authority, and the will to enforce it, on the part of the teacher, and submission on the part of the pupil must be absolute and unhesitating, or teacher and pupil must part company. Hesitation is death to obedience. Let the pupil ask for reasons and the teacher give them freely, afterward, in private; but the pupil's obedience should never be allowed to wait for or depend on such explanation. This is the very corner-stone of the whole structure. Better lose your pupil, or your place, than your authority. But with this ultimatum you will seldom lose either, if your heart is right toward the pupil. While Wellington was needing every man at Waterloo, word came that a certain leader and his men hesitated to go into a dangerous position. "Tell him to march them off the field," was his instant order. One soldier or student hesitating to obey an order may lose the whole battle. Many a teacher has ceased to hold her pupils, and has begun to lose her place, also, from the hour in which she allowed one command to go unexecuted.

I know that the tendency to sentimentalism in our age is constantly seeking excuses for not doing unpleasant things. Teachers are shown how to keep their students wide-awake and interested, so that they will not need rules, and some teachers even go so far as to call all rules a relic of monasticism. All this may sound very nice, and may be very pleasant for the time for all parties; but there is no discipline in it. There are hard duties in citizenship, and the habit of always expecting to be pleased and interested while a student does not help the man or woman to do earnest work in hard places. I believe it to be true, that there is no real teaching unless some one learns. So there is no real discipline unless students learn to do something which they do not like, simply because they ought.

2. Equally important with absolute obedience, to the student, is the idea of self-sacrifice for the sake of others. The pupil must be taught the necessity of sometimes suffering inconvenience or discomfort, or even apparent injustice, for the sake of helping his fellows, or for the general good. Socrates died unjustly under the law rather than to encourage others in law-breaking by any example in evading or escaping his sentence. Some students, desir-

ing and intending to do their very best, may not feel helped—may even feel hindered—by regulations which are necessary for others; but rules must be impartial. Hence those who do not need them must sometimes be taught to submit to them cheerfully, for the sake of others who do need them. This cultivates the spirit of self-sacrifice, which is in itself one of the most necessary qualifications for true citizenship.

Of course this idea of discipline involves something of example on the part of the teacher; but this is so much in its favor, as there are few things which we as teachers need more than this same spirit of self-sacrifice, for the sake of our pupils. It is easier to be a guideboard to point the way to others, than a guide to lead them in it, but it is not half so valuable. "Sympathy," feeling with, "Inter-est," being among, and "Du-ty," what is due, are words that it will pay every teacher to study carefully. To be permanently successful in implanting this idea, the teacher must have some genuine love and care for his pupils as individuals, in school and out. In fact all discipline should be prompted by love, either to the student punished, or to those for whose sake he is punished, that they may not do likewise. You have heard of the new society, "The King's Daughters," and of the power of the little silver cross, and the words "for His sake." With us as teachers, the thought should always be, "for my pupils' sake," and as Christians, "for His sake," who died for us and for them. It is only fair to add a corollary to this thought of self-sacrifice. It is that he who thinks more of others than of himself, will in the end gain most, even for self. Unselfishness is the surest road to real happiness and genuine success, either for student or citizen. The turbulent independence of the Barbarian conquerors of Rome, each one unwilling to surrender a jot of his own liberty, and impatient of any control, kept them for centuries from having any government worth the name, or any real citizens.

3. A third point to be kept prominent in discipline, is the sacrifice of present ease for the sake of future power. Enforced disciplinary studies have a place here that nothing else can fill, and I believe that many of them are far more really practical than the so-called "practical" studies in much of the New Education. They sharpen the observation, and at the same time give vigor to the intellect and temper, the understanding and the will, as no study in Applied Science or in Modern Languages can do. Ben Hur found his hands made strong for the chariot race, and for dangerous places afterwards, by the years of menial service as a galley slave, which at the time he so bitterly detested. Man has been called "a bundle of habits," and they certainly form a large part of the life of any man or woman. Habits formed in school-life, of cheerful submission to established regulations, of ready and cheerful obedience to orders, of willingness to sacrifice self to serve others, of subordinating desire to duty, of following definite lines to a definite conclusion for a definite purpose, will be of immense value for power and influence in future citizenship. Self-discipline

by the student, to be kept up through life, is a part of this thought. Paul "kept his body under," or, as the boy put it in telling about his Sunday school lesson, kept his soul on top. Students should learn to be the masters and not the servants of their passions. Daniel "purposed in his heart that he would not defile himself," and carried out his purpose in honorable service through the reigns of four successive kings, of three different nations. Citizens like Daniel will always be in demand, under all forms of government and all administrations. "He that would be first of all, must be last of all, and servant of all." There is no permanent "first class" in this land of ours. The first place will be given to him who in some way earns it, by the greatest service to the most people. Our greatest railroad and business men have gained their places by habits of business, industry, observation, and decisive action, formed when they themselves were the servants, obeying orders.

4. One more point deserves separate mention, though closely connected with the last. This is "present self-control," outside of any reference to the future. Pupils are lazy, careless, indifferent, mischievous, and are making no effort to be different. What shall the teacher do? Let him first recognize that time is an absolutely essential element in this case, and then begin, and keep up, patiently digging at the roots of the child's nature to find some point through which it can be touched. We say that some teachers have great "tact" in dealing with children; but "tact" is only "touching," and generally implies a vast amount of previous thought about when, and where, and how, to touch most effectively. Sometimes the student will see his need, and go to work at once, with the teacher's help, to overcome his faults. Happy the true teacher then, for both teaching and discipline become a joy, and an inspiration to better work.

But if not, and the pupil's own parents give no help, what then? Shall he drop discipline with these, and let them go, giving his time and attention to those who are really trying to work? We are sorely tempted to do this sometimes. But no, for this would be giving up the battle often for half the students, and a loss of ground in the end for all the rest. Better hold them in line for a time at least, by the severest discipline, until they may somehow see their need, and try to supply it. Something is gained with such a student when he is held for some time to any definite line, and still more when after some special crisis he will hold himself there, for awhile at least. The great danger is that teacher or pupil, or both, may become impatient at the slow progress, and be tempted to give up the task half done. Then we have citizens made of timber seasoned only in spots, and liable to warp or give way under any unusual strain. Trees of slow growth make stronger timbers and better firewood than those which have grown rapidly, in fertile soil. So the students who have learned self-control through long battling with difficulty will make the best citizens in the end. Having learned the value of patient endurance, and steady application, they are not led by the glib tongue of any specious demagogue who can make a plausible speech, neither

do they imagine that the country will go to smash unless there is a revolution to-morrow; but they are content to wait and work, till necessary changes can be made in a fair and legal way. Such citizens are worth having, and they are often made from what seems at the time to be the most hopeless material.

This is a task worthy of the best energies of any teacher. Even the best and most patient work may not make good citizens of all, but it will save some, and these, in turn, will help to save others.

The best work of the best teachers is not in going on rapidly with the brightest students, but in arousing and helping the much larger number of duller or more careless ones. Parents, who ought to be helpers, will sometimes be the teacher's greatest hindrances, looking upon all discipline as an arbitrary notion of the teacher, yet never coming near the school to see. Here the Home fails utterly in preparing law-reverencing and law-abiding citizens, and the School must supply its place. Machine work will not answer here, for no two natures are exactly alike. Only individual love for the individual child, and the thought of individual responsibility for its future citizenship, will enable the teacher patiently, yet persistently, to point out and correct the faults which are so sure to mar the future citizen. It is not easy, (unless one is angry, in which case he had better say nothing,) to say what we know will hurt, however much it may be needed. But "faithful are the wounds of a friend," and the teacher must often speak such words, even at the risk of great offense to both pupil and parent. Arousing, correcting, developing and training careless or thoughtless pupils will be a greater real triumph to any teacher than to see his brightest students win praise or attract attention by the most noteworthy work.

The bright ones would be apt to go ahead, anyway, but to awaken and train rightly an otherwise dormant intellect and will is to make a clear gain of one in the ranks of future good citizens; and this is the strongest ground on which our public schools can claim the State's support.

The endurance of hardship or suffering in some form seems to be necessary for the highest development of character. Even the Lord Jesus, "though He were a son, yet learned obedience by the things which He suffered," was "made perfect through suffering," and suffered, being tempted, that he might better be able to succor "them that are tempted." And I can but think that the teacher who leaves out of his discipline the example and teaching of Jesus of Nazareth, the greatest of all teachers, will fail to reach the best results in the present lives and future citizenship of his pupils. His discipline, "Learn of me, for I am meek and lowly in heart," "Father, not my will, but thine, be done," and His test of true citizenship, "Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's," can hardly be improved upon by any precept of human invention, even in this enlightened age. He dealt with His disciples as individuals, and patiently showed them their weaknesses and faults, through

long years of training, that they might render efficient service as citizens in His kingdom.

Alvan Clark spent many months of patient labor, that the great object-glass on Mt. Hamilton might truly show the starry heavens to those who relied upon its power. Victoria, when a girl of twelve years, accidentally found out that she was heir to the British throne. She had murmured at the hardness of her tasks before, but now she took them up with renewed vigor, to fit herself for the place which for half a century she has so well adorned. In America every citizen is a sovereign, and the mental and moral discipline in all our schools ought to be such as to fit our youth, so far as the influence of their teachers can go, to be true citizens and true sovereigns in their own favored land.

To sum up, I should insist on four main points in all school discipline:

First—Absolute and immediate obedience to all lawful commands.

Second—Self-sacrifice for the general good; with the corollary, that in the end this will prove best, even for self.

Third—Self-sacrifice now, for the sake of increased power hereafter. This includes training in good habits, the subordination of desire to duty, and the following out of some definite lines to a definite end, with a definite purpose.

Fourth—Self-control now, including, perhaps, training through suffering for greater power and usefulness hereafter.

How soon should discipline begin? I should say, with the child's first day at any kind of school. Not merely the training of the Kindergarten, which is rather a drill in action than a discipline, but a training to obey some distinct regulation, pleasant or unpleasant. I doubt whether a child's training in obedience can be begun too early. How long shall discipline continue? Some would say that young men and young women should be emancipated from regulations. My own observation, coupled with a somewhat varied experience, makes me believe that some form of regulation or discipline is a help to men and women of any age, whenever and as long as they are under tutelage in any form. As to the results of actual experiments in college or university classes, I am not prepared to speak positively, though I believe that the general principle holds good.

How shall discipline be administered? I have tried to explain, expound and enforce discipline, and now, if you please, I will see what I can do toward applying it.

What penalties should be used, and how should they be executed?

Of course, as the catalogues all say, the discipline should be "firm, but mild." But what is firm, and what is mild? Plans are various, and the results seem to be almost as varied. Students' courts, jury trials, self-punishment and various other artifices have been suggested and tried, to bridge over the inevitable difference of opinion between faculty and students, both in regard to regulations and penalties for their violation. My own opinion is that none of them will pay in the end. The teachers in any school

ought to know better than the students what regulations and penalties are best, and they ought to prescribe them, allowing students to ask questions, or present petitions, at any suitable time.

As no teacher can answer questions in regard to this point positively, so that his answers shall be fully satisfactory to others, or even always to himself, I shall merely suggest in closing what seem to me to be a few of the points worthy of attention in this direction. It seems easy to tell what ought not to be done, but even in this I do not believe it to be wise for a teacher to bind himself publicly beforehand.

I should say, then :

1. Every school of any grade, from the Kindergarten to the University should have some definite laws, which must be obeyed, under penalty of some form of punishment.

2. The penalty should have some proportionate relation to the offense.

3. The penalty should be sure rather than severe, though it should always be severe enough to count.

4. The punishment should not be such as to permanently degrade the student in his own estimation, or in that of the school, if he make reparation as far as possible.

5. So far as possible it should avoid subjecting either teacher or student to ridicule.

6. Its objects should be only to reform the offender, or to prevent other offenses in the school, never to take revenge in any form.

7. Opportunity should always be given (in private, or before the faculty) for the pupil to plead his own cause, and any known injustice should be promptly acknowledged, and repaired as far as possible.

Finally, while discipline is generally the most unpleasant part of the teacher's work, it is sometimes the most important, and requires the highest wisdom. Hence, other things being equal, I think that the teacher who has himself learned humility and submission in the school of Christ, and willing obedience to the laws of God, will be wisest in planning and carrying out in his own school the discipline which is most valuable to prepare law-abiding and law-reverencing citizens under the government of men.

THE CULTURE MOST VALUABLE FOR EDUCATING LAW-ABIDING AND LAW-RESPECTING CITIZENS.

JOSEPH BALDWIN, OF HUNTSVILLE, TEXAS.

An American citizen is at once a sovereign and a subject. As a sovereign, he makes, applies, and executes law; as a subject, he respects and obeys law. How to educate the masses into wise sovereigns and obedient subjects, is preëminently the problem of our times.

The State educates for citizenship. This is the reason for the existence of State school systems. Are our schools doing wisely and well the work for which they were created? A recent inspection of the schools of New York City discovered an almost total lack of patriotic sentiment even among American children. A wider inspection, extending to the schools of all the States would, it is feared, discover an astounding lack of education for citizenship on the part of American youth.

Preparation for citizenship requires direct and specific culture. Because intelligence is recognized as essential to good citizenship, education, in all our States, is made as free as the air we breathe. But the necessity for specific culture in the science and art of citizenship does not seem to have impressed either our statesmen or our educators.

For want of education for citizenship, society is burdened with inefficiency and corruption; is burdened with unnecessary debt and taxation; is burdened with sorrow and shame; is burdened with anxious forebodings. For want of such education, the mass of our voters are blind partisans and abject slaves of party. For want of this education for citizenship, a very large proportion of our best people refuse to take an active part in public affairs; thus leaving, to an alarming extent, the management of the common weal to demagogues, machine politicians, saloon-keepers, and foreigners. A remedy for these evils, it is safe to affirm, is a direct and thorough culture for citizenship in all our schools. When our statesmen and educators realize the urgent need of such culture, effective means and methods will be found.

The highest ideal of human government worked out by the thought and experience of the race is realized in the American Republic. Sixty centuries were necessary to prepare a people worthy to establish and maintain such a government as ours. The world has never seen so grand a galaxy of patriots, statesmen and philosophers as that composed of the men and women who builded the American Republic. History has no treasures of more thrilling interest than the stories of our heroic struggles for liberty, the marvelous achievements of our patriots, and the stupendous growth of our immense empire. No other government in all the ages has produced such boundless enterprise or so grand a manhood as our government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

The literature of no other people is so rich in materials for patriotic culture. Every American child needs to be baptized into the spirit of these facts. From infancy to age these truths need to pervade the hearts and thoughts and lives of our people. Then will our masses learn to respect the government, and maintain the laws. The schools of New York have gone to work systematically to inculcate patriotism, and all our schools in all our broad land would do well to follow the example. Patriotism should be ingrained.

Every youth needs to imbibe the spirit of our government. Our history, our

plan of government, and our political economy, ought to be made as familiar as the multiplication-table. A youth thus educated will become an intelligent and efficient factor in the direction of the state.

Our history, studied from the standpoint of the patriot, is a powerful means for educating our youth into good citizens. Our heroic struggles for personal liberty and good government, the glorious achievements of our illustrious fellow-citizens, and the marvelous growth of our stupendous empire, must be made living realities.

Every youth needs to understand our institutions. To enable him to regulate it, the jeweler must understand the plan of a watch. How much more is it necessary for the citizen to understand the plan of our government, in order to wisely regulate the affairs of state! The family, the school, the town, the county, and the state, may be used as object-lessons in teaching the plan of our government. In our schools, the pupils may be led to adopt, help enforce and obey school regulations, until it grows into a habit to respect and obey law. Intelligent doing educates.

In our times, science determines measures. This is no less true in building states than in building railroads. Political economy formulates for us the experiences of the nations, and prepares us to act in the light of the ages. The profound ignorance of the masses, even of the rudiments of the science of our commonwealth, is the source of our most serious social troubles, and the constant menace of our institutions. The plain principles of a wise political economy should be inculcated, from the primary school to the university. Not partisan theories, but such practical lessons as will fit the citizen to act for the common good, is what is needed to render impossible such monstrous evils as oppressive syndicates, strikes, anarchical riots, class legislation, and licensed evils.

A worthy citizen is necessarily a politician. Politics embraces all the relations and duties of the citizen to the State. The office of a free citizen is the most important office in a republic. A political education is a thorough preparation for virtuous citizenship. Such political education would crown our school work and make civil-service reform possible.

Each citizen is under obligation to take an active part in politics. In a thousand ways the humblest citizen may promote the public good besides by voting, paying taxes, and holding office. In a republic, no man lives to himself. Sovereignty has its duties as well as its privileges; to shirk these is criminal. There can be no private life in a free government. Such political culture as will work a revolution in this respect is demanded. Why are we the victims of political bosses and oppressive monopolies? Why are saloons and foreigners permitted to control our cities? Evidently because so large a proportion of our best people abdicate their citizenship, become political hermits, refuse to take an active part in politics.

Blind partisanship is a monster evil, fatal to good citizenship. Its motto is, "Our party, right or wrong." Machine politics, saloon politics, corrupt

politics, boss politics, is what it gives us. It makes of the free and independent citizen a party slave. We plead for such political culture as will emancipate from party thralldom. Education is making the most of self. The individual is greater than the party. The man is greater than the state. To produce grand men and women is the function of government. But everywhere individual superiority is in the ratio of political perfection, as will be seen by comparing England and China, or America and Turkey.

The study of the history of our political parties is important. What can be better for this purpose than the study of the life of Henry Clay in the American Statesmen Series, and similar works? Such studies will prepare our youth to understand the functions of political parties. The good citizen so thinks and speaks and acts as to promote the common good. But, to secure what he considers the best measures and the best men, he finds it necessary to work with his fellow-citizens who entertain like views. Thus a political party, such as the American party or the Prohibition party, is formed. When his party ceases to represent his convictions, the good citizen ceases to work with it, and promptly forms other affiliations better calculated to promote the public good. Our ideal citizen is a master and not a slave. To him a party is merely a means. As a sensible farmer prefers a modern plow suitable for his purposes, rather than the crude instrument used by his ancestors, so the wise citizen prefers the party of to-day best calculated to promote the general welfare, rather than the grand old party of his fathers. Such study by our youth of the history and philosophy of political parties will tend to destroy the fetichism of party, purify and elevate political life, and make independent and grand American citizens.

Culture for citizenship must have an ethical basis. The imperative of conscience is greatly needed in politics. From infancy to age, reverence for law and the duty of obedience to law should be impressed. These lessons, it is believed, may be taught most effectively by leading young persons to realize the evils of violating law as well as the blessings of obeying law. The reign of law is the sublime reality that underlies all science. We mean by laws the uniform ways in which energies act. The uniform ways in which physical forces act are physical laws. Mental laws are the uniform ways in which mental energies act. Social laws are the uniform ways in which social energies act. The two great axioms of social science are: (1) Happiness follows the observance of law; (2) Misery follows the violation of law.

All good comes to us through conformity to law. Physical blessings follow conformity to physical laws. Observance of mental laws results in mental good. Obedience to social laws produces social happiness. Happiness is merely a result of obedience to law. In all the universe, law-abiding is the only road to happiness. All the Solomons of all the ages, after testing every false way, tell us that the whole happiness of man comes from keeping the commandments. Because all good comes through conformity to law, wise beings revere and obey law. In all the universe, there is no other lesson so important as this.

Sin is the transgression of law. All evil comes to us through non-conformity to law. Physical suffering follows the violation of physical law. Mental woe follows violations of mental laws. Social misery follows violations of social laws. Our blind animal appetites and passions clamor for gratification, regardless of law. Yielding to these impulses, men and women become lawless slaves to their appetites and passions. The wails of woe that go up from the rising to the setting of the sun, from hovel and palace, are consequences of violated law. As law obeyed produces happiness, so law violated produces misery. Our almshouses, our insane asylums and our prisons are but indices of the great sea of human woe. Lawlessness is the source of every pang.

'No one can afford to violate law. Obey and live, disobey and die; obey and be happy, disobey and be miserable: these are the lessons of human experience. Everything noble within us and around us and above us impels us to love and obey law. Reverence for law and obedience to law are the lessons most important to work into the mental economy of the young. Society owes to itself the sacred duty of throwing around our youth every good influence, and removing as far as possible allurements to lawlessness, until the law-abiding habit becomes strong. In the family the child learns to respect and obey law by obeying his loving parents. In school the pupil learns to love and obey law by keeping the school regulations. Law-abiding thus grows into habit, and the citizen who as child and youth has learned to respect and obey parental laws and school laws will readily respect and obey state laws.

In conclusion, I venture to suggest to our patriotic book-makers the importance of preparing a supplementary series of civic readers, in which will be presented in an attractive form the science and art of citizenship, and in which patriotism and law-abiding will be inculcated. Our public schools are the mightiest power for good the world has ever known. Such a series of readers would, it is believed, do more than any other agency to initiate and systematize specific education for citizenship. The patriotic women and men who may have the courage and wisdom to take the lead in this glorious work will deserve to be crowned as public benefactors.

THE CULTURE MOST VALUABLE TO PREPARE LAW-ABIDING AND LAW-RESPECTING CITIZENS.

GEORGE H. ATKINSON, PORTLAND, OREGON.

The previous divisions of this topic presuppose a measure of knowledge and a habit of discipline in the public school as valuable aids to this end. They recognize that good citizenship is one of the objects, and perhaps the *chief object*, of the public-school system in our nation. (This may be true

in every nation which has or proposes to have such a system.) The founders of the New England colonies established free schools in 1638, that intelligence and good morals might conserve and perpetuate their government. As the population of the United States has multiplied and become more heterogeneous, the right training of its future citizens takes the precedence of every other question.

We take the position, here and now, that the true aim of the public school must be to teach and guide, and if need be compel, its youth to be law-respecting and law-abiding citizens.

If, in time past, mere school-learning and discipline have been or have seemed to be the main objects in view, while the dignity and responsibility of good citizenship have been only incidental, the time has come to reverse the process.

America cannot be held for or by Americans unless her children are taught, early and always, why and how to do it.

The power of any nation is no greater than its weakest factor. The weakest element in this Republic is its lawless class. We are no stronger than the law-breakers whom we tolerate. Suppose any persons or class defy the law with impunity: they are the measure of our strength or soundness as a body politic. A basket of fruit carries the taint of its worst specimens. Respect and obedience to law have been our most solid basis. Such culture, well begun in youth, must also form the mental and moral habit when the boy or girl graduates into the larger school of domestic, social and public life and duty.

GRATITUDE.

Our thanks are due to the fathers that these qualities were early woven into the fabric of this nation. What forethought in the Pilgrims on board the Mayflower to form their government, choose their officials, and adopt their constitution, before they dared to set foot upon the bleak shores of New England! The perils of winter and starvation, of incipient communism, of fierce Indian tribes, of obtrusive and reckless immigrants—men and women, were met and overcome by this small but law-abiding community. They had fled from tyranny, and formed a government of liberty under law. Against this strong fortress the lawless and the savage alike made successive attacks in vain. Outlaws were banished, not in cruelty, but in respect to the imperative obligations of law itself. Had freedom of conscience become license for every wild vagary of speech and act, liberty would have been impossible in America. Law put an arrest upon the lips as well as upon the hands of the anarchist, and thus gave the highest measure of personal security and opportunity.

Profound respect and gratitude should be cultivated in our schools and among our youth for the pioneers of this nation, who have planted the banner of law at every step of their progress during the centuries, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The most impressive fact on any national holiday is not the vast assembly, the parade, the banners, the procession, the music, the oration, though never so eloquent, but the order, self-maintained, under the invisible Ægis of universal law. This is more to us than imperial edicts, or standing armies. A decision of the highest court outweighs any other lesson that can be taught the youthful citizen.

AUTHORITY.

The maxim has long held sway among us, that law must be enforced as the best way to find its defects and correct them. The supremacy of law has thus been stamped upon American character from the first. The encroachments of the crown were shown to be illegal under the English constitution or common law in the colonial period, and were legally resisted. On this count the attempt to take away colonial charters was repelled. The germ idea of the Revolution was not rebellion, but the highest mandate of law. This culture in the earliest homes of our people, in their schools, assemblies, courts, and churches, ripened into the solid legal bonds of federation, and the ultimate unity of the entire cluster of States. This culture not only enlarged the quiet reign of law among the colonies, but cemented its force in all the states under the constitution; and made oligarchy, kings, and standing armies needless and impossible; rendered courts not only appellate but ultimate; and placed the supreme judiciary above the executive as a last resort. Among its many far-reaching decrees, none are more instructive to youth than those which protect life and property against the assassin and the anarchist.

NECESSITY.

These historic lessons—studied, weighed, and measured—reveal their central idea in the nature of things.

Man dwells with his fellow-man under mutual pledge of protection of life, liberty, and property. While constitutions outline these principles, law defines the processes of their execution. In a self-governing state, no person ignorant of these principles, or their application, is safe for himself or in respect to his neighbor. The omission of this study may account for frequent outbreaks damaging property and destroying life. With all the light poured daily upon these coördinate relations of liberty and responsibility—by the manifold press; by legal processes and judgments; by domestic, social and public discussions; by prisons and penalties—many remain untaught, or even unreached, and their increasing numbers in city and country have become a startling menace to the securities of liberty and life.

In view of such facts, can it be too strong to say that our youth must become familiar with these themes in the public school, and continue the search through life? Is not the pressure of *necessity* upon the guardians of the public welfare *now* to provide for this exigency by a revised curriculum? Is there not reason for special text-books, illustrating the principles and conditions of American liberty under law, with fitting examples, and wit

suitable instructors and classes, and a daily drill, so that our own youth, and especially the children of foreigners, shall become well posted in respect to the rights and duties of American citizens?

What more laudable study than this can engage their attention? What one is more imperative in its own nature?

RECTITUDE.

Beyond the law of self-interest the human mind conceives a quality of rightness and its opposite. It responds to the appeal made by the Great Teacher to his opposers: "Yea, and why even of yourselves judge ye not what is right?" It is more than mere fairness, or equity, or statute. President Woolsey remarks that "Rights and correlative obligations, after all, are but the underpinning of the social fabric. They deal simply with acts and *with intentions as embodied in acts*. (Rousseau was entirely right in maintaining, against Grotius, that a man had no right to surrender all his rights—that is, to make a slave of himself,—slavery being the negative of rights. For if he could do this, he could abridge his power of doing good, which is greatly dependent on his power of exercising his rights. That is, he could sink himself *freely* below the condition where his nature puts him, and renounce the place given him by God in the world, which would be flagitious—shameful. . All, however, that Grotius meant was, we believe, that a nation could submit to a superior and lose its liberties, or, in other words, could come *jurally* under the absolute power of a conqueror. . . . The *negative side* in the sphere of rights and obligations is the most important, but it is not necessarily thus in the moral sphere. Most laws are prohibitions of acts affecting the rights of others, or general social order." "There may be some pretext for saying that a laborer shall not be compelled to work more than ten hours, but when did law force a freeman to work a given number of hours, even if he had bargained to do so, or when did it forbid him to bargain to work more than a certain amount of time per diem?")

These principles are axioms, self-evident truths, needing only to be stated in order to be admitted. Of such quality are the Decalogue, the Proverbs, the aphorisms of Jesus in the Sermon on the Mount, and in His parables. The maxims of political economy in the Hebrew commonwealth have never been surpassed or annulled in the experience of nations who have tried them. They have given permanence to that race greater than any other people, and a preëminence to some qualities over other nations with whom they have freely mingled.

The key of these maxims and aphorisms is in their inherent rightness. The law of reverence, of truth, of worship, of parental and filial duty, of the sacredness of human life, of personal property, of personal and domestic purity and reputation, has never been so clear and complete in statement as in the ten commandments. It is monumental as it is universal. The stat-

utes of the most civilized and enlightened nations are based upon them. Legislation cannot safely ignore or neglect them. Their practical force was voiced by Israel's grandest king: "Blessed are the undefiled in the way, who walk in the law of the Lord. Wherewith shall a young man cleanse his way? By taking heed thereto according to thy word. I will run the way of thy commandments, when thou shalt enlarge my heart. The law of thy mouth is better unto me than thousands of gold and silver. Let my heart be sound in thy statutes, that I be not ashamed. I have seen an end of a perfection; but thy commandments are exceeding broad. Through thy precepts I get understanding; therefore I hate every false way. The entrance of thy word giveth light; it giveth understanding to the simple. Thy righteousness of thy testimonies is everlasting; give me understanding, and I shall live."

His successor on the throne, noted as the wisest in counsel of any ruler of his age, or of any age, exalted wisdom above wealth: "Happy is the man that findeth wisdom, and the man that getteth understanding. For the merchandise of it is better than the merchandise of silver, and the gain thereof than fine gold. She is more precious than rubies, and all the things that thou canst desire are not to be compared unto her. Length of days is in her right hand; and in her left hand riches and honor. Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace. She is a tree of life to them that lay hold upon her; and happy is every one that retaineth her. The Lord by wisdom hath founded the earth; by understanding hath he established the heavens. The wise shall inherit glory; but shame shall be the promotion of fools."—(Prov. iii.)

The beauty of this personification is only equaled by its truth and righteousness. What marvelous lessons are in Solomon's apothegms: "Treasure of wickedness profit nothing; but righteousness delivereth from death. The memory of the just is blessed, but the name of the wicked shall rot. He that walketh uprightly walketh surely, but he that perverteth his ways shall be known. He that winketh with the eye causeth sorrow; but a prating fool shall fall. The mouth of a righteous man is a well of life; but violence covereth the mouth of the wicked. The labor of the righteous tendeth to life; the fruit of the wicked to sin."

Such words from the lips of the rulers and leaders of Israel were the maxims of political wisdom. The contrasts between the good and the evil were drawn in deep lines. Their fruits were seen. Their future was foreseen. Principles, like fountains, send forth streams of like kinds.

Human rights spring from the Author of our being, and belong to all mankind. Rectitude means duty to our race. These ideal conceptions of natural rights cannot be uprooted or crushed. They exist in the bosom of the slave in his lowest bondage. They are latent in Kaffir and Hindoo and Chinese; in Asiatic and African as well as European and American. They bind us all in a common brotherhood. But they must be drawn out, educated, cultivated. Their scope includes the world now, and will so continue.

SANCTIONS.

They have mighty, resistless force and convictions of right. Whatever is true and sacred in itself will of necessity enlist powerful protectors. Given liberty, its defenders will appear. The stronger the conviction, the greater will be the struggle and the sacrifice for its defense.

On May 30th, at Brooklyn, General Sherman said: "I am here to enforce lessons of right-doing upon the young men who are here, that they may preserve liberty for which so many fought and died. Remember, boys, that peace has its victories as well as war, and that there is as much bravery in doing your daily duty as in fighting battles. Be honest and earnest. Serve your country and your God."

Hon. Geo. W. Curtis, on the same memorial occasion, said: "Those buried soldiers were patriots, to whom America meant not only nationality and justice, and equality and obedience to law, but also political progress, the righting of public wrongs, the ability of the people to see their own errors, and constantly to strengthen by purifying their own government. They died to serve these great ends. Let us live to serve them. As we scatter flowers upon their graves, let us baptize ourselves in their spirit, and with their abiding faith in the people, seeing everywhere the signs that the America of their hope shall be the America of their children. The late civil war with all its costs of life, property and sufferings, is the most signal example of this duty of citizens to maintain their freedom."

Standing on Plymouth Rock, sixty-eight years ago, Daniel Webster said: "We are bound to maintain public liberty, and, by the example of our own systems, to convince the world that order and law, religion and morality, the rights of conscience, the rights of persons, and the rights of property may all be preserved and secured in the most perfect manner by a government entirely and purely elective. If we fail in this, our disaster will be signal, and will furnish an argument, stronger than has yet been found, in support of those opinions which maintain that government can rest safely on nothing but power and coercion. As far as experience may show errors in our establishments, we are bound to correct them; and if any practices exist, contrary to the principles of justice and humanity, within the reach of our laws and our influence, we are inexcusable if we do not exert ourselves to restrain and abolish them." This last was said with reference to *slavery*. The burden of his thought was: Protect your country's liberties and rights and laws at whatever cost of patriotism. This means, provide all the methods of safety, and use its utmost wisdom, power, wealth, and other resources to preserve its integrity. This has been done thrice under the sanction of war and its fierce carnage.

It has been measurably guarded by the virtue and intelligence of its people during all its history. With its wonderful growth and more heterogeneous populations its perils have also increased and its obligations have multiplied.

What agent can do so much to teach its coming millions, infuse right principles and mold their character, as the public school? What opportunity is so inviting? What duty so imperative? What reasons for gratitude can so move us to this service? What authority can so command us? What necessity can so enforce our purpose? What principles of freedom and righteousness can so sustain the effort?

Standing on the Pacific shore, we can respond to the fathers on the Atlantic that the public schools across the continent will cultivate in peace the highest lessons of patriotism. Our aim shall be to qualify its future citizens, native and foreign-born, with sentiments of respect and obedience to law.

To do this, why not search anew the pages of history for testimony? Why not unfold more than ever the records of our own experience? Why not re-read and re-study the history of the Hebrew commonwealth, which contains the germs and the inspiring motive of our own? Why not engrave the Ten Commandments at one end of every school-room, and the Sermon on the Mount at the other end? Why not follow that pathway of light which prepared the way and predicted the coming of Him who should bring forth judgment to the Gentiles? Why not restore the word of God to the public school, and enrich the pupils with its treasures of wisdom and knowledge? Why not lead our youth daily to the feet of the Great Teacher and Lawgiver of mankind? Why not resolve, and with unfaltering purpose enforce our resolution, to restore God's book of human rights and laws—not only as the standard of truth and rectitude in our families, in our legislatures and courts of justice, but also in our public schools, in which its training is most impressive and most imperative? Where goes that book there go light, and law, and liberty.

If it be objected that this will infringe the rights of conscience, the answer can be made, that no right of personal conscience is so sacred as the right of the self-protection of a body politic. No community is secure if its morals are corrupt. To instruct children and youth in good morals, under the highest standards, is not only *legally* right, but *essential*. The higher the range and tone of teaching, and the more imperative its moral force the more deeply you implant that force in the heart and life of youth. He who corrupts the morals of a free people strikes the heaviest blow against freedom. He who prevents, or by any means obstructs, the highest and purest and most forceful moral teachings in their schools, strikes that blow. His conscience is no measure of their interests and rights in the case. "There is," says Drummond, "a natural law of degeneration. Mr. Darwin calls it the *principle of reversion* to type." A garden planted to cultivated strawberries and roses, if neglected, runs to waste. The strawberry becomes the wild one of the woods; the beautiful rose becomes the dog-rose of the hedge. This principle runs through all creation. If a man neglect himself for a few years he will change into a worse man, and a lower man. If he neg

lect his body, he will deteriorate into a wild and bestial savage. If it is his mind, it will degenerate into imbecility and madness, as solitary confinement tends to unmake men's minds and leave them idiots. If he neglect his conscience, it will run off into lawlessness and vice. "These three possibilities of life, according to science, are open to all living organisms: balance, evolution, degeneration." The first is difficult; the second, or upward growth, is more difficult; the third, degeneration, is easy. It is the natural law in human life. It appears in childhood, and youth, and age. This factor must be recognized in education. Its neglect will bring on decay of the power neglected. "Nature," says the same writer, "has her revenge upon neglect. She makes the burrowing mole sightless, and the fish which swims in dark caverns powerless to see. The little *crustacea* which have inhabited for centuries the lakes of the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky have two black specks for eyes. They are a mockery. The front of the eye is perfect; behind, there is nothing but a mass of ruins. The optic nerve is a shrunk, atrophied and insensate thread. These animals have organs of vision, and yet have no vision. 'They have eyes, but they see not.' They have chosen to abide in darkness, and have become fitted for it. By refusing to see they have waived the right to see. It is nature's defense against waste, that decay of faculty should immediately follow disuse of function."

Apply this law to public schools. Neglect any quality, and you lose its power.

There may be little fear of neglect in some lines of study. Even the subjects are broadening. But how stands ethics in the curriculum? Much that is practical is there. Art is there. The sense of beauty and order is there, with high standards and severest sanctions of taste, but what hours of weeks or of terms are devoted to those lessons of rectitude which underlie all the most sacred relations of social life, business life, and political life? What books are at hand for this culture? What lectures, or conversations even, are given to educe these deeper elements of the soul and make the intelligent conscience the arbiter and leader in the future citizen-life of the pupil? How is that profound respect for constitution and statute implanted which insures obedience?

Neglect at this point is darkness that at length becomes sightless. The moral sight unused, deprives such a student of its power.

Hints come to us that such conditions exist. Wild ravings against one class of citizens imply dense ignorance of their rights; cruel demands upon another class breed tyranny. In the midst of peace there are combinations to disturb and destroy. Where all could prosper, the elements of discord are set in a ferment.

Youth, but recently out of school, or beyond its age, are the majority on the criminal roll, and the penitentiaries are crowded with young men. The young more and more form the vicious classes.

Do these facts signify a neglect on this line of culture, which forebodes larger measures of such fruits?

It is well for us to find what law of seed-sowing has sway among our youthful American citizens! Certain it is that we shall reap in kind and in abundant measure what we sow.

By every thought, not only of gratitude to the fathers of this Republic and honor to their memory, but also of unswerving purpose and unflinching courage, on our part, to transmit this fair heritage of intelligent freedom, untarnished and even more exalted and more strongly buttressed with the elements of truth and virtue, to future generations, we are called upon to train our youth of both sexes in the principles and responsibilities of American citizenship, and in the conscientious sense of their own duty to fulfill those obligations, whenever and wherever these may arise, at any cost or sacrifice, *even of life itself*.

Such have thrice been the crimson sanctions with which our martyr-patriots have sealed our liberties. Such must be the spirit of the patriotism which shall maintain them now and in all the future. There must be no craven partisanship in our education that shall ignore or set aside the foundations of inalienable rights on which our great nation has been builded!

We conclude with this idea: that it is not too much to ask of state and national legislation to require and enforce by adequate supervision upon every public, corporate, parochial, and private school, which assumes the education of American children and youth of both sexes, whether of native or foreign-born parentage, the duty to train such youth in these principles and obligations.

And that this National Educational Association will hereby affirm and strive to secure this universal knowledge of, and obedience to, the laws of this free and self-governing people.

And, finally, that every child of suitable age shall be provided with suitable schools, suitable teachers, and other suitable equipments for his and her education as American citizens.

And that this provision and supervision is the right of eminent domain over American citizenship as far superior to that over the land as the citizen is superior to the soil beneath his feet.

THE DISCIPLINE MOST VALUABLE AS A MEANS OF PREPARING LAW-ABIDING AND LAW-REVERENCING CITIZENS.

B. F. TWEED, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Lord Bacon says: "They be not the highest instances that give the surest information, and therefore Aristotle noteth well, 'that the nature of *everything* is best seen in his smallest portions.' " "For this cause," continues Lord Bacon, "he inquireth the nature of a commonwealth, first in

the family, and the simple conjugations of man and wife, parent and child, master and servant, which are in every cottage. Even so likewise the nature of this great city of the world, and the policy thereof, must first be sought in mean concordances and small portions."

This being assumed as the best method of learning the nature of a commonwealth, the question for us is, how the knowledge thus obtained can be made practical? Shall it be solely, or principally, by the introduction of a text-book on civil government, with class recitations? These are the proper and usual means of acquiring knowledge, but they are not always efficient in securing its application; and we may say with Portia, "I can easier teach twenty what were good to be done, than be one of the twenty to follow my own teaching." By "the discipline most valuable as a means of securing law-abiding and law-respecting citizens" is meant something more than the mere knowledge of civil government and the duties involved in citizenship. It implies such a training in the principles involved in good citizenship as will form habits of obedience. It is training our children by the discipline of the school to habits which by a natural process of evolution become principles of action in mature life.

It is therefore to the management and what is called the discipline of the school that we must look. Every school is a little commonwealth, and should be governed by law and not by caprice. If the family contains the elements which constitute "this great city of the world," the school certainly includes all or nearly all the relations that exist in a commonwealth. It is therefore a step from the family toward the state; and as pupils have been trained to submit to the beneficent laws of that little commonwealth, the school, and have become accustomed to respect its laws, they are preparing to enter the larger commonwealth, and to see that submission to law is necessary for the protection of individual rights, and the common welfare.

But perhaps the question will arise whether the discipline of our schools is such as to train pupils to a love of order and a reverence for law. Perhaps not, of the best kind, in all cases. In the olden time, when arbitrary will and caprice, enforced by the birch or rattan, were the governing powers, school discipline was but a poor training for good citizenship. But, fortunately, better methods of instruction and school management are now in vogue, and the principles implied in school discipline are more nearly approaching those on which all good government rests. But imperfect as has been our method in the past, our public schools and our town meetings have done more than any other agency to give us order-loving and law-abiding citizens.

Our town meetings have taught submission to the will of the majority, expressed in legal form. Whoever has attended a New England town meeting, and witnessed the excitement attending the discussion of some local question, cannot fail to have looked with admiration on the quiet that follows when the vote is declared.

But who, you say, is to frame and execute the law for the school—the teacher? But when I say the school must be governed by law rather than by caprice, I mean it in the same sense in which a law of nature is “the method in which God uniformly acts,” “the least feeling its care, and the greatest not exempted from its power.” And, I may add that no school discipline is satisfactory or successful that does not commend itself to the sense of justice of the great body of pupils.

In this regard it bears the same relation to the government of the school that an enlightened public opinion does to the government of the commonwealth. It is a necessary element to secure good government in either.

A school discipline such as I have described, aided by the intellectual training of our schools, will, I am confident, prove one of the greatest agencies in preparing law-abiding and law-respecting citizens.

If this view is correct, (and if it is not, I have been misled by Lord Bacon,) school government should be such as to train pupils to *habits* of *obedience*, of *industry*, of *justice*, and of every principle essential to good government, whether in the school or in the larger commonwealth of which they are soon to become subjects.

DISCUSSION.*

H. S. JONES, OF PENNSYLVANIA: I will merely drop one or two thoughts concerning the knowledge most valuable. Here is one little bit of knowledge you can take with you. Did you ever think that we are a nation of mugwumps, or to speak in a word more common but as well understood, that we are a nation of kickers? My grandmother's grandmother was a Pilgrim kicker. My father's father's father was an Irish kicker. My mother's grandmother was a German kicker; and we are all pointing that way.

My friends, the political atmosphere of our country is reeking with dead-letter laws, and there are certain reasons for it. We have a sort of mania, and there are some very good people that have it,—my wife has it,—we have a sort of a mania that if something is wrong, all you have to do is to get a law passed and that wrong will be made right. Now let us see why we are such a nation of kickers. In my acquaintance with schools they teach patriotism in this way: Bunker Hill! Bunker Hill! Concord! Concord! Saratoga! Saratoga! and so on. A little boy in my town drew up a declaration of independence, calling his teacher this thing and that and the other; and it is in the very air.

Now if we jump up into the college or the high schools, we can there learn that you are not going to make a republic out of a great bundle of

*Stenographer's report.

laws. We have in our town several lawyers who get a fat living by digging up laws that have been forgotten, bringing them up like old fish-hooks, and catching even our judges, to say nothing about the jury.

Now instead of so much Concord and Bunker Hill, let us have taught the lives of men and women who have lived for mankind and womankind. Let us have less of this spirit of defiance, and then we shall have something that will help us. Because, as I said at the start, we are a people of mugwumps, a people of kickers; and we must not bring these things into the school and ring them up—Bunker Hill! Bunker Hill! In my own State, just after the Revolutionary War, the Father of his Country had to come with the army of the United States and march north through that State, to put down a little rebellion right in that part of the State where they made the Declaration of Independence before it was made in Philadelphia. We have the Scotch and the Irish ready for a twist any time, especially if you touch the whisky. No topic, my good friends, is so full of fruit for study as this topic we have been discussing to-night. We must take it and work upon it, or our republic will go to pieces.

C. C. STRATTON, CALIFORNIA:* Among the dangers which threaten our country are:

1. An absence of regard for the office of the civil magistrate. Men do not distinguish between the man and his official character. He is from themselves, neither worse nor better. He does not specially exalt his office, and many fail to see that his office must, while he fills it, honor him.

2. A want of reverence for the laws of the land. They too are from the people—some of them fresh from the people. Why, then, should they be revered?

The discipline of the school should respect the dangers which threaten us, and aim to avert them—should smite and throttle this pestilent young Americanism which respects neither persons nor laws.

As far as possible, our public schools should lie above the caprice or whim of the teachers, and under established laws and regulations. The student should regard these as the Hebrews did their Sacred Ark—as so sacred that they cannot be touched with the hand of violence or irreverence without exposing the transgressor to the angry flash of avenging justice.

The authority of the teacher should be respected for the sake of his office. Even when his administration lacks wisdom, the student should be taught at home to respect the office and the officer, rather than contribute by his example to the subversion of all order.

The enforcement of this authority will call forth both wisdom and tact. As far as the pupil can appreciate reasons, an appeal may be made to his intelligence. The personal influence of the teacher must come into constant play, in order to enforce discipline.

When everything else fails, recourse may be had to the rod. Should any

*In outline.

object to this method of government, and think it degrading to whip the child, then, to use the language of President Hopkins, "You need not do that; whip the mule that is in him. If possible, whip it out of him, and then you will have a child and not a mule."

THEME: CURRENT CRITICISM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND WHAT
ANSWER?

*"THE SCHOOLS FAIL TO TEACH MORALITY OR TO CUL-
TIVATE THE RELIGIOUS SENTIMENT."*

JOHN W. COOK, NORMAL, ILLINOIS.

Nothing escapes the critical spirit of the age.

If the goddess with the scales were to assume corporeal existence^a and attempt the administration of our national affairs, she could not escape the charge of inefficiency, partiality, or even venality. We find fault with everything and everybody.

Once a year, indeed, on the natal day of the Republic, we forget our forlorn and disgruntled condition, and take an inventory of our belongings with a degree of commiseration for the rest of the universe and of self-complacency for our share of it, that ought to make us contented for the rest of the year; but having settled our score with the patriotic instinct, we relapse into the condition of the apartment that was swept and garnished.

It would be passing strange if, in such a universal overhauling, an institution that touches every hearthstone should escape the scrutiny of the ubiquitous critic; hence it should occasion no surprise that the public school is called upon to run the guantlet of criticism.

With all of the seeming dissatisfaction of the American people, the fact remains that no nation has a profounder faith in and love for its institutions, nor does any interest lie nearer the popular heart than the free common school. To it more than to anything else do our people look for a proper settlement of the great questions that press for solution in our national life.

I will go farther, and assert that to this same spirit of unrest and dissatisfaction is due in large measure the excellence of what is really admirable in our civilization.

The establishment of a system of popular education was ever the thought of the founders of the nation, and its perpetuity has been the anxious care of every enthusiastic lover of his kind. The most important act of Congress under the Articles of Confederation was the Ordinance of '87, in which it was formally declared that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged," and that memorable body showed its faith in the cause it had espoused by the donation of more than one-sixteenth of that magnificent domain for the support of popular education.

With the adoption of the constitution and the relegation of the subject to

the several States, the members of the great sisterhood began that noble competition which has resulted in as many free-school systems as there are stars on the national banner.

As each territory assumes the dignity of statehood, it confers upon the children within its borders, and the unborn generations to succeed them, an institution enriched by all the experience of our educational history, while in several instances it has declared by compulsory legislation that no child shall neglect the opportunities afforded him to enter in some fair degree into the intellectual life of the race.

I have said thus much to demonstrate the absolute sincerity of our people in the support of free common schools.

With these facts in mind, we are admonished to listen patiently to current criticisms respecting their administration, and to meet them in a spirit of candor and fairness.

An institution that absorbs so large a part of the money collected by impartial taxation and determines the activity of the youth of the land for so many of the precious years of childhood, must show results commensurate with its cost and with the responsibility that it assumes.

To the schools the public has a right to look for a potency in the determination of the character of the citizen in all of his activities. If there is a manifest weakness where strength may fairly be expected, the voice of criticism will be sonorous and insistent.

Notwithstanding the apparent variety in the character of these criticisms, they seem to be practically reducible to three:

1. The schools fail to teach morality or to cultivate the religious sentiment.

2. They fail to give an adequate mastery of the subjects of instruction.

3. They fail to give a suitable preparation for the duties of active life.

The discussion of the first of these propositions has fallen to my lot.

Unless it is the proper function of the school to teach morality, the criticism is without point, even if there were ground for the charge. Let us, then, briefly notice the significance of the term. Its earlier meaning seems to have been a conformity to prevalent customs, without regard to their character. That prevalent customs were sometimes "more honored in the breach than in the observance," history abundantly demonstrates. In that progressive movement of the race occasioned by its endeavor to seize the positive and abiding, and which is a perennial inspiration to every lover of his kind, morality has come to express a conformity to that established order of the universe which ever makes for righteousness.

Its essential elements are an intelligent apprehension of this divine order, and a spirit of obedience in conforming to its requirements. As Dr. Hickok has aptly expressed it, "A moral act is a personal act—the act of a free will.

An act without freedom, an act necessitated, is no moral act, and an agent *without free will is no moral agent*. The sphere of morality and the sphere of freedom are not only coëxtensive—they are identical."

It may be defined as that activity which results from a faithful obedience to those imperatives that arise from an intelligent apprehension of the true nature of rational spirit.

The acknowledgment of the peremptory character of these imperatives is the recognition of duty. The actualizing of duty in deeds results in what is called a virtuous character, toward which the conscious subject is constantly impelled by that insistent potency of his being which sharply discriminates between his ideal self and his actual self, and which we call conscience.

Moral conduct is, in brief, intelligent right conduct.

Should the public school deliberately and persistently endeavor to secure this result, or should it be left to the family and the church? To this interrogatory only one reply seems reasonable. If the school be regarded as one of those minor institutions which the state has established in order to secure its own perpetuity, it must perform the office most essential to achieve the purpose of its creation. A condition precedent to the perpetuation of any form of government is social order. Social order is that condition which results from the obedience of a large part of the units of population to the requirements of authority. These requirements may emanate from an external or an internal authority. The social order of Russia is an illustration of the first class, and an ideal republic, of the second.

The degree to which the form of government established, and thus far maintained, in the American Republic, at such an incalculable expenditure of blood and treasure, approaches the ideal republic, will depend in large measure upon the extent to which those internal imperatives that arise from the intelligent apprehension to man's true nature become regnant in the determination of conduct.

If the larger and nobler view of the function of the school be accepted, in which it is regarded as one of the indispensable agencies established for the purpose of "realizing in each individual all that is possible to humanity as a whole," the same conclusion is inevitably reached.

The highest aspiration of humanity is freedom. It is the sublime acme of man's hopes and his ambitions.

But there is no freedom except to him who is in harmony with the established order of the universe, and the immutable conditions are always the same — intelligence and obedience, the two elements whose unity is morality.

From whichever point of view the subject is approached, how significant these considerations become to a people conditioned as we are! The difficulties which beset a nascent state are largely material in their character. Nature is to be subjected to the purposes of man. Commerce is to be established, cities to be built, means of inter-communication constructed, and all of the vast enterprises of a great and growing civilization organized. Abundant opportunities for the sudden acquisition of wealth and political power present themselves. Success in all of these enterprises depends in

large measure upon intellectual keenness; hence we have witnessed the apotheosis of *smartness* in American life. The money-value of intellectual education is strikingly apparent. That the school should aim at intellectual sharpness, as one of its results, has been universally conceded. But the intense passion for gain, fed by the opportunities for its acquisition, has brought its legitimate fruit. The rapid growth of our cities has stimulated into intensest activity the worst as well as the best forces of the time. There is widespread demoralization. Every day brings disclosures of corruption in unexpected quarters. A procession of fleeing defaulters, laden with spoils, vanishes across our northern border to join the American colony in Canada.

The great trade-centers exhibit a growth that is rapid and rank, and out of all proportion to the development of any spiritual forces that hold the populations within the pale of righteousness. The purchase of office in the open market scandalizes political life, while the growing power of the saloon threatens every home.

Where are the great conservative sentiments that should hold society within those lines of conduct that render such scenes impossible or extremely exceptional, and stamp with eternal infamy the defaulter, the gambler, and the venal politician?

It is idle, in the presence of such disclosures, to ask whether the school should teach morality. That the founders of the nation believed it to be within its province, no one can doubt.

The common school was the gift of the Christian church to the race. Its primary function was religious instruction. With the establishment of absolute religious freedom, and the consequent multiplication of sects, it lost the distinctive characteristic which the church had given it, and a consequent abnormal exaggeration of the intellectual element resulted. But on what theory of perpetuation of the state, or ideal development of the individual, shall the intellectual life of the young be stimulated into the intensest activity, in the presence of the thousand temptations to prostitute it to base uses, while we neglect to awaken into as vigorous a life imperatives to duty that shall be trumpet-tongued, and a conscience that shall lash with the keenest remorse if will is impotent to actualize duty in deeds?

Yet the charge is freely made that the school is utterly failing in discharging its duty to society in this particular. Statistics demonstrate that in forty years the ratio of criminals has arisen from one in 3500 to one in 850. The prisons are found to be filled with men who, in some way, have acquired at least the rudiments of an intellectual education. Their number is so great as to lead some of our most eminent experts to assert that the case is made against the school. It is claimed that the education which it affords affects only the intellect, does not qualify the pupils to earn their own living, and fills their minds with a social ambition which very possibly *most of them can never realize without resort to the tricks of the sharper.*

The religious bodies of the country, irrespective of denomination, reëcho the charge, asserting that the schools confine themselves almost exclusively to intellectual education, and thus turn loose upon society their thousands whom they have only rendered more capable to prey upon their fellows. That depraved public sentiment which so grossly exaggerates the importance of money finds in these half-educated men and women a responsiveness that leads them to the conviction that no mode of life is utterly bad whose purpose is money-getting.

These great organizations, whose purpose is the conservation of social order, demand a reconstruction of the time-honored curriculum, and the addition of a fourth "r," righteousness, to the traditional three.

What answer shall the teacher make to his accusers?

To admit that these conditions which excite such serious apprehensions in the mind of every thoughtful person are chargeable to the school, is to admit that the teacher has utterly failed to appreciate his mission. I deny the right of any man, or body of men, to make the school the scape-goat for all the evils that are rampant in society. It is not the only institution upon which moral responsibility rests. Its limitations are legion. The teacher cannot go into the streets and by-ways and compel the children to come within the range of his influence. He can only await the pleasure of those who can speak the word that sends the young into his presence. He cannot retain them until the agencies at his command have produced their legitimate results. At a call more potent than any that he can speak they leave the walls where his dominion ends, to return no more.

During the few brief months which the average child remains in the school, how impotent is his influence against the street, the vile literature that blights like a killing frost, the cheap theater, the home that is no home, the thousand evils that pollute the currents of life in the great cities—for they are the breeding-places of that social corruption that gives point to the lance of the critic. It is to the home, that place of all places whose influence above all influences gives color to national life, that the student of sociology must turn to find the explanation of the condition of public morals.

I am not here to deny that the school has a duty in this direction, but to assert that it is but one of the agencies that are responsible for the social status, and that it is by no means the greatest.

In defending himself against the charge of incompetency, the teacher may enter the mitigating plea of lack of opportunity. He may fairly demand the presence of the pupil for a reasonable length of time. If this be denied him, he may admit the truth of the plaintiff's allegations, and yet deny cause of action.

I see no reason why Chicago may not be taken as a fair representative of the larger American cities. What do statistics disclose? Assuming the year '86-7 to have been free from exceptionally disturbing influences, we have the following *suggestive facts*:

The average daily membership diminishes from 18,000, in the first grade, to 14,000 in the second, 11,000 in the third, 7,600 in the fourth, 6,300 in the fifth, 4,400 in the sixth, 2,500 in the seventh, and 1,500 in the eighth. These figures indicate an average attendance of about three years for the 16,500 that disappeared between the first grade and the eighth. Add to this showing the patent fact that children inheriting a predisposition to crime, or suffering the limitations of poverty, will, of necessity, be most irregular in attendance, and an unprejudiced jury will concede that the defendant's point is well taken. I have no remedy to offer at this writing, but will only suggest that our critics may find profitable employment in solving the problem. Meanwhile, let the uncomfortable facts "allay with some cold drops of modesty their skipping spirits."

I have no desire, however, to relieve the teacher of any responsibility that properly devolves upon him, and in suggesting that there are considerations that seem to have escaped the attention of some of his critics, I do not wish to appear as an apologist for incompetency. With a fair chance for effecting its legitimate ends, what should the school achieve? I unhesitatingly answer that its highest function is the production of upright men and women. It should be the efficient ally of every agency that endeavors to make righteousness the dominant idea in human society. This thought should become an absorbing conviction in the soul of every person who enrolls his name on the list of those who are to teach the young. Are the schools persistently and methodically endeavoring to secure this result?

If we turn to the courses of study prescribed by authority, and endeavor to find some evidence of the presence of specific moral instruction, we discover little to reward us for our examination. Here and there the alliterative phrase "morals and manners" indicates a disposition to attempt something systematic, but a closer examination generally discloses the fact that the instruction is limited to incidental attempts at familiarizing the children with the more conspicuous canons of etiquette. There is no need, indeed, that the subject should have a definite place upon the daily program. Since it relates to conduct, the opportunity for its inculcation is offered whenever the pupil is in action. It is to be the necessary sequence of the organization and administration of the school in every one of its details. It has already been said that morality is the unity of two elements, viz.: the intellectual apprehension of an established order, and that cultivation of the will which results in obedience to apprehended law. Dr. Harris has remarked that "life is continually separating into its two strands of intellect and will, and continually uniting these into habitual forms of action."

The most efficient stimulus to activity is a manifold interest. In the normally constituted family the command of the parent is the law of conduct. The desire of the child to win the approval of his father and mother constitutes the interest by which the will is stimulated to an activity that *rapidly takes the form of habit*. When the child enters the school there is

an extension of the same feeling to the teacher. If he does not share in the implicit confidence which the child reposes in the parent, it is not wholly the fault of the child. Here lies the teacher's opportunity. His dictum is the law for the pupil. It is the introduction of the young into life in an organized institution. All the collisions of the larger social career that awaits him as an adult are experienced. The subordination of private interest to the general welfare is a necessary condition to that state of harmony which all naturally covet. Moral habits are the inevitable outcome of the ordinary discipline of every well-regulated school. By insensible degrees the skillful teacher substitutes for his own prescribed law of conduct those ultimate rules of action which the introspective pupil finds written in unmistakable characters in the tissues of his soul. Ordinary school management becomes a fine art; its use is the fashioning of the young into self-directing beings, who find freedom in obedience.

Does the average teacher discover the mission of school government in its true relation to the child? I think not, because, alas! the less said of the average teacher the better for the reputation of our profession. But whatever may be true of him, he is exactly what public sentiment makes him — he is cheap.

I answer the charge which our accusers make against us, by laying a large part of the responsibility at their own doors. They demand a result which only the highest skill can produce, yet they shut out of the schools the requisite talent by a low appreciation of the necessary preparation, an insecure tenure, and a beggarly compensation.

Not only should the ordinary requirements of promptness, courtesy, cleanliness, industry, personal responsibility, self-control, etc., eventuate in moral habits, but *every* intellectual act of the child should have the same uniform outcome.

The limits of this paper do not permit any elaboration of the theories of Herbart and his school, or of that higher thought in this country which, starting with the proposition that the supreme end of direct instruction in the ordinary studies of the school is the development of moral character, seeks a solution in ethics and psychology on one side, and in the content of the universal curriculum on the other.

The five worlds of organic and inorganic nature, and of the intellectual, æsthetic, and practical man, are opened to the child by every common school, if, happily, there be a teacher whom a correct public sentiment has called to take charge of that school. Through all of these worlds, that supreme potency, the divine mind, manifests itself, uttering its imperatives in those formulas that we call law. An intelligent apprehension of this fact is one of the marks of the true teacher. A growing recognition on the part of the child that he is under the dominion of law, and the discovery that only by moving in the grooves of the universe can his true destiny be achieved, are the conditions *under which a moral bearing is given to his intellectual*

occupations. Each subject of instruction affords its peculiar opportunity in the hands of the teacher who is equipped for his delicate task, and when the public demands such a preparation on the part of those to whom it intrusts the future of the race, it will be forthcoming.

But what of the second part of my theme?

The religious sentiment is that emotion that is called forth in view of God and his attributes. Its highest manifestation is worship. As Dr. Hopkins has expressed it, "The lower animal nature is held in reverent abeyance, while everything that is truly man, his whole intellectual, moral, and spiritual nature, are brought to their highest activity. The will, as central, brings the whole being before God, and offers it to Him, the emotions going up as incense."

Since our ideas of God are chiefly determined by our religious education, and since this is so variable a quantity, it is not strange that any suggestions looking toward religious training in public schools are regarded with suspicion. The character of such instruction, it is urged, must take its dominant color from the peculiar views of the teacher. The fear that sectarian zeal may abuse its opportunity has sufficed to banish from the school distinctive religious instruction, and has carried with it everything except the most incidental efforts at the cultivation of the religious sentiment.

The common school, maintained alike by all, is not the place for the inculcation of the dogmas of the sectary. But no life can touch its true level that fails to rise above the phenomenal and fleeting to meet its source. All that is finds its true explanation and meaning in its relation to God. The soul of man seeks afar the immutable—the universal spirit that fills all space and time with its presence—and to it alone it confesses its allegiance. In the seclusion of the home the youth should receive its primary impulse toward God. The tender voice of prayer, the melody of sacred song, the recognition of the unseen but omnipresent oversoul, turn the thoughts of youth to the mightiest, the most potential idea that has found its way to the consciousness of the race. The supplement of the home is the church. It deepens and intensifies this profound conviction. It fans the flame of aspiration by noble example. It throws into all the relations of life the insistent truth that God is in the world, a personal agency, to determine its destiny. Must the most commanding voice that speaks to the human soul be denied articulate speech within the walls of the school?

If morality is to be secured by an intelligent apprehension of the nature of rational spirit, the youth must be trained to spiritual introspection. But the inevitable outcome of such an examination will be the sentiment that what he finds—that something whose majesty and authority fill him with awe—is an inflow of that boundless spirit that fills the universe. Moral training leads, with no halting step, to the summit of being. It has no need of creed or catechism. The teacher is the text-book. If he has found his *kinship with the divine*, and has thus recognized this supreme dignity and

the debasement of spiritual unworthiness, he will be a shining epistle, known and read of all.

The subjects that afford the best opportunities for the cultivation of the religious sentiment are of two classes: those natural sciences in which the laws of design and adaptation seem most obviously beneficent, those subjects which afford the best concrete examples of the recognition of such a principle, and that literature which inspires the emotions by direct suggestion. If I could, I would include in this paper the body of the admirable discussion of yesterday, on this particular topic.

Whatever has good-will to man as its central thought, wins the universal approbation of the race. Animate nature, whose only mission seems to be to furnish a basis for man's existence, glows with a spirit of beneficence, and points to some potency outside itself which seems mindful of man's low estate. That phase of human automatism that maintains the conditions necessary to sustain life seems to contain intimations of the protecting care of an overruling thoughtfulness. As the child reads the story of his physical being; as he counts the pulse-beat and watches the rhythmic ebb and flow of respiration, and is led to realize the tender solicitude without which the shuttle would cease its throbbing in the loom of life, his nature turns in thankfulness to a power not himself.

In history he finds a record of the active will of the race. Where he finds this will, with its imperious restlessness, bending before the idea of a divine will, and sees the magical effect of a recognition of the imperatives of God, the thought cannot be utterly impotent.

It is the highest idea that determines character. Those conceptions that take hold of the eternal and abiding have dominated the world. In their presence the near seems temporary and fleeting, and the soul looks out of its narrow cell into the world of universal truth with its necessary relations.

Only such an ultimate rule of action as grows from considerations like these can possess much potency in determining the career of man.

To the charge, then, that the schools fail to teach morality, and to cultivate the religious sentiment, the answer returns that if it be true, the public sentiment that thinks more highly of money than of men is alone responsible.

**"THE SCHOOLS FAIL TO GIVE A REASONABLE MASTERY
OF SUBJECTS STUDIED."**

LILLIE J. MARTIN, INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA.

A public institution should supply the needs of each individual in the community. Current criticism on a given institution, indicating as it does that *this ideal is not realized*, should receive thoughtful consideration.

To ascertain more explicitly the nature and extent of the criticism upon public schools, I prepared the following circular:

"One current criticism upon public schools is that they fail to give reasonable mastery of subjects studied.

"1. If you regard this criticism as just, please state:

(1) Why you think so.

(2) Causes.

(3) Remedies.

"2. If you regard it as unjust, please give your reasons."

Three hundred and fifty copies of the above letter were sent to various parts of the United States, two hundred and fifty being sent to those engaged in educational work and one hundred to business men. Fifty per cent. of the circulars sent to educators were unanswered. Official business, poor health, etc., limited the replies of twenty per cent. to apologies. Thirty per cent. were more or less satisfactory answers. Thirty-nine per cent. of the writers think the criticism partly and twenty per cent. wholly just. They say: First, that their own experience and that of persons in whom they have greatest confidence has shown that public-school graduates, as a class, are not able to use their knowledge of particular subjects, or are not in possession of a power that enables them "to lay hold upon the things that come to them in life;" second, that superintendents, on looking over the schools, are dissatisfied with the results; third, that college professors complain of secondary schools and high-school instructors of grammar schools; that teachers in grammar schools find grievous shortcomings in work done in grades below their own; and that teachers in all public schools, after working with children for months, find them "helpless and confused, inaccurate and inelegant in the spoken and written word, and rarely or carelessly applying fundamental principles."

The letter of Mr. W. H. Hailman, which I have been unable to embody in the above, he has kindly permitted me to read. He says: "I think the criticism on Public Schools thoroughly justified because of the meager outcome of public-school influence in the life of the pupils and of successive generations. All the causes seem to lie in a dead formalism that holds educational work captive, from the primary school to the university—a formalism that prevents life or obstructs it in the getting and in the giving of an education, and which builds all work on self-preservation rather than on self-expansion. The remedies seem to lie necessarily in the opposite direction, in an educational new birth into the realm of the spirit, in the abandonment of mammon and a return to God."

The men not engaged in school-work who were heard from did not materially differ from the educators in their views. The criticisms were as reasonable. None of them resembled one which formerly furnished readers of the *Indianapolis Journal* with much amusement. Its correspondent, on finding that his son did not know the names of the ninety-two counties of

Indiana, informed the public that the schools were not giving a mastery of geography.

The most pointed criticism received from those not engaged in school work came from Mr. Hugh O. Pentecost. He says: "The question which you ask concerning the teaching in public schools, I really know very little about, except as I am able to judge by observing the effect of the system upon my own child. It seems to me mechanical, and to fail mainly in that it does not encourage or train the child to think independently. I find that my child gets what is in the book very well by rote, but oftentimes the same questions which are in the book, if asked independently of it, and as a mere matter of every-day life, are not answered with that intelligence which I should like to see developed as a result of educational methods."

Thirty-six per cent of those sending answers think the criticism entirely unjust. They say: First, that young people, the majority of whom have been trained in public schools, are coming forward very prominently in all walks of life; second, that the public schools are constantly improving, and even now are generally conceded to be better than private schools; third, that those persons whose opinions are most reliable declare it unjust; fourth, adverse criticism comes from three classes of unreliable judges: biased persons, who do not believe in the education of the masses or who are connected with private schools and hope to increase their patronage by disparaging public schools; unwise persons, who think the public schools should do the work of special schools and fit young people for particular vocations; unreasonable persons, parents of unambitious, inattentive, lazy, or dull children, who expect the public schools not only to do their own work but also that of nature and of the home; fifth, that the perfection of the system makes superficial work impossible. Only teachers whose examination proves them to be qualified are accepted, and even they are prevented from falling into careless habits by constant supervision. In addition to this, pupils are tested at each step to assure thoroughness.

Answers to the above arguments readily suggest themselves. The measures proposed and carried out by young men have been of such a character as to prove that, in politics at least, they have come forward so prominently not so much from their ability to handle public questions as from an unwillingness longer to do all the election-work without reward. Again, while I am sure that the public schools are now better than private schools, and are every year improving, I cannot see that that proves that they give reasonable mastery of subjects studied.

Sixty-four out of one hundred persons from whom I have heard, accept the above criticism as true in a greater or less degree. It would be difficult to find more reliable judges. They do not belong to any one locality nor to any one rank in educational work: they are state, county, and city superintendents; they are teachers and principals in normal, high, grammar and primary schools; *they are presidents of state universities.*

On grounds of sound policy, criticisms based on personal considerations are worthy of attention. Revolutions arise when too many people get to criticising. If we believe in evolutionary reforms we must get knowledge from such criticisms. Moreover, personal criticism usually attacks an institution at its weakest point, and for this reason will in a more advanced state of the schools, I doubt not, be treated with much the same consideration as is that of the specialist. For example, the parent of an unambitious, inattentive, lazy, or dull child should expect the schools to do more for him. Nor is that parent illogical who says that, if the schools prepare for all vocations, they prepare for his. When you tell him that his child's failure is due to his immaturity of mind, he asserts most emphatically that the course is faulty; and can you blame him for being a little obtuse when you explain that it is fitted to the average mind?

Again, the unprejudiced person could hardly regard the examination as positive proof of a perfect system. Such examinations usually consist of the giving of ten questions on a text-book. If those examined answer seven and one-half, (they must be sure to answer the one-half,) they pass. The convenience and simplicity of present supervision in this particular is certainly very striking, but its efficiency is not so apparent.

A careful consideration of information obtained through correspondence and conversation leads me to think that the above current criticism is in a measure true. Inasmuch as only an intelligent idea regarding the causes can lead to the application of proper remedies, I shall seek to call attention to those assigned in the answers to the circulars sent out. These fall under seven heads:

1. *Imperfect school laws (two per cent.)* I shall leave the discussion of this point to those members of the Association who have a voice in the making of the laws.

2. *Influences which sometimes prevent the best teachers from securing places (five per cent.)* It would seem that political influence as a controlling power in the selection of teachers must soon pass away. Other forms of favoritism are more subtle and therefore more dangerous. In the selection of teachers, personal appearance has often too much weight. Those having the matter in charge reason, I suppose, that the teacher should be beautiful since Rosmini and indeed many writers on education affirm that children are attracted towards the beautiful. But they forget that a child's artistic ideas are somewhat different from those set forth in the *Bazar*. His strong admiration for people whose exterior is not entirely satisfactory to fashionable families has been frequently observed. A teacher may be most pleasing and helpful to children although if his appointment had depended upon the fit of his coat or his size he would have been summarily rejected.

3. *Meager financial support (thirteen per cent.)* Money is promptly furnished for erecting and equipping school-buildings, but it is not so readily

forthcoming for other purposes. If the child is physically and mentally comfortable, the parent is satisfied. He forgets that mental comfort may arise from the fact that the teacher is only able to furnish an anodyne, large classes and long hours making it impossible to supply a stimulant. Overwork is written on nearly every intelligent face seen at a teachers' gathering. Educators recognize its reactionary effect, and strenuous efforts are now being made to decrease the size of classes. Long hours are equally harmful. Time for recuperation would give teachers such increased energy that comparatively little additional money would be needed for shortening them. I once heard a well-known educator say that he thought young teachers more effective. In other professions young people are not said to have the advantage over those of mature years. If teaching really requires that knowledge and skill that is affirmed, certainly young persons having only those powers which arise from an exuberance of physical force cannot compare with people of mature years who have such abundant intellectual power, and, when not overworked, sufficient physical force to vitalize it. Again, greater financial support is needed to give teachers increased salaries that they may take advantage of what would better fit them for their work. Only a few thousand of the many thousand teachers in the United States are here. No wonder they stayed at home! We who are here can tell a touching tale of the small economies that were practiced last year and must be practiced next to pay for this month's pleasure and profit. It is sometimes said that the best teachers do not care for a good salary, and to increase the salaries would not improve the character of the work. Some few individuals can get along without money. An eminent educator once expressed surprise that more teachers did not go to Europe, since the expense of the trip was so trifling. This remarkable person who was able to pay her way by her very presence, was too modest to realize that all could not do the same. Under present conditions of salary and work, teaching is too much a sacrifice on the part of the strongest men, and the majority, except a few of great genius or love for the profession, gradually seek other callings. Up to this time the women of the best mental caliber have found it most pleasant and profitable to teach, but other vocations are now open, and they will doubtless follow the example set by the men. But even if the strongest people are thought to remain in the profession, salaries should still be increased. Conditions favorable to martyrdom are out of harmony with the most advanced ideas in social science. The law of that science, as of physics, is, that but a certain amount of energy exists in the world, and if any of it is consumed in overcoming friction, that is, unfavorable conditions, less remains for the actual work to be accomplished.

4. *Poor supervision (eleven per cent.)* Supervision to determine whether subjects are mastered must consist in testing the work. Most superintendents think, if the test they employ is indicative, that a subject is mastered when on a *written examination* the majority of the pupils reach or exceed

seventy-five per cent. on a set of text-book questions. Some superintendents declare that the ability to write good answers to a set of questions implies no facility on the pupil's part in applying a subject in every-day thinking and acting, and that therefore the written examination is an inadequate test. The finding of a satisfactory test is imperative. Intelligent teachers will always be governed by the standard to be attained. Those persons who affirm so emphatically that they are not teaching for the examination must be doing desultory work. This city furnishes unusual opportunities for an intelligent study of the effect of the written examination upon the development of a people. Here are the Chinese, who have been tested by it for several centuries. In China, political preferment is the object of every man's ambition. The offices of the imperial government are filled by persons who have most successfully passed a rigid written examination. For each vacancy there are hundreds of applicants who have crammed for this test for years. As a result of this training, we find a people imbued with such respect for authority in subjects that they are able neither to develop nor apply them. If the written examination continues to be made a final test, we can get a pretty clear idea of what the future American citizen will be like, by visiting Chinatown.

5. *Insufficient time (eight per cent.)* The average age of graduation in the larger cities is, I am told, about eighteen years and six months. The American Table of Mortality shows that persons reaching this age will live to be sixty. That is, about one-fourth of life is now spent in getting ready to live. So many are the institutions that aid in man's development, that it seems unreasonable to ask most young people to remain longer in school. Moreover, neither the pupil's inclination nor the exigencies of the business world make a longer school period desirable. The pressing question now is, how to induce young people to take advantage of the time already offered.

6. *A defective course (twenty-eight per cent.)* Various criticisms are made upon the course. It is said to include too many branches. Arithmetic, geography, grammar, physiology, United States history, reading, writing, spelling, drawing and music are fundamental expressions of the world, and, for successful living, they must be understood. The seeming multiplicity of subjects arises from the fact that all are given the same prominence. The first five branches just named are valuable from the theory and art side, the last five from the art side more particularly. These last should not be taken up independently beyond the primary school. Subsequently, the first should be the subjects of study, the last being used as tools. People also say that children find the course too difficult. When out of school, children naturally talk about the matters of which the subjects treat; it must be our mode of presenting them which makes them find them difficult in school. We usually expect pupils to state fundamental principles in language which expresses our more complete conception. Illustrations required are also those *which occur most readily* to the mature mind. Again, each subject is said

to include too much. Text-books are unreasonably large. Illustrations which should be elicited by the teacher from the pupil's own experience are given much space. This demands such expenditure of force upon memory that little remains for other mental acts. It is also affirmed that children cannot apply what they have studied; that is, they are unable to see that every-day occurrences are explained by principles supposed to have been acquired. Why should they, when little or no systematic effort is made to teach them to apply the various school branches?

The course cannot be too carefully scrutinized, for from a moral as well as an intellectual standpoint so much depends upon it. Harvard College has recently furnished an illustration. So much time and strength were spent upon athletic sports that the overseers concluded to restrict them. Would they not have been wiser had they scrutinized the college course? In youth the mind will find exercise in the direction of physical activity. The material worked upon is that most readily at hand. There it was the game of base-ball. Indeed, I am inclined to think that a defective course will not only account for the superficial work, but even the moral downfall, of many brilliant college men.

7. *Deficient preparation of teachers (thirty-three per cent.)* This I regard as the fundamental cause, and I shall take science to illustrate the particular in which the training of most teachers seems to me deficient. A successful teacher of science in a leading college said recently that, as science is now taught in secondary schools, he would quite as soon teach students who had been trained for college under classical studies. His opinion is shared, I find, by many of the best science teachers even in regard to the better preparatory schools. In such schools this unsatisfactory work cannot be attributed to antagonism on the part of the community as a whole, for money has been furnished for apparatus, rooms for laboratories have been provided, and young people encouraged to study science. The college is the only institution that has not sufficiently exerted its influence to raise the science standard in lower schools, but its influence is not sufficiently widespread to account adequately for such unsatisfactory work. The absence of external causes proves that the teacher is himself to blame. Want of mechanical skill cannot account for his failure. Dalton demonstrated the law of definite proportions with the roughest home-made balances. Indeed the whole history of science shows that mechanical skill has not been essential to the highest success. Besides this, competent persons declare that teachers able to manufacture instruments having a delicacy of which the law-givers of science scarcely dreamed have not sent out well-trained scientists. The mind, not the hand, is at fault. The examination-marks received by teachers prove a fair acquaintance with the history of science. Where, then, is the difficulty? Agassiz and all the great science-teachers have been investigators. Investigators would naturally present their work before the *national scientific society*. Very few teachers in high schools

have presented papers before it. Their names, as a class, are also absent from the programs of local scientific societies. The fact that the community rather looks upon teachers as encyclopædias, proves that they are not using up their thought in handling the scientific problems of practical life. In short, teachers in lower schools are not doing original work. By undertaking some simple investigation and watching the mind during its progress, one could ascertain whether such work were not a necessary part of a teacher's preparation. I therefore determined to make a chemical study of certain growths on black walnut. I did not hesitate a moment. Was I not somewhat conversant with general chemistry, and had I not taken a laboratory course in qualitative and quantitative analysis? I had also stood fairly well on various examinations, and had had some experience in teaching the subject. Theoretically, I was thoroughly equipped for investigation. Still I was at loss how to proceed. My memory did not supply me with anything that seemed applicable to the task before me. I did not know where to look for assistance, and if in reading I chanced to find something that seemed pertinent, I was doubtful as to the apparatus. When I saw my way clear to the selection of the particular piece of apparatus, even if I had used it a hundred times before, a more awkward mode of handling can scarcely be imagined. So slowly and imperfectly did my senses act, that I observed little and was doubtful of the confidence to be placed in that little. Deductions were simply out of the question. Now in chemistry I had gone through a course which was supposed to give scientific discipline, general information, power in manipulating apparatus, etc., etc. Of how much value the course had been to me, is shown by the remarkable facility I evinced when called upon to use my knowledge. Certainly no one will deny that that only is knowledge which one is able to employ in mature years. But so great is the fear in some quarters that knowledge will be degraded by being put to work, that the above statement will certainly arouse antagonism. Some one will say, at least to himself, that the end of study is discipline. This word needs to be defined. If there is a useless study in the course for which somebody, through habit or otherwise, has an affection, he expatiates much upon its disciplinary value. I have about concluded that with many people discipline means the ability to fix the attention on some point in space. Why is it not as well to let the mental faculties roam as to fix them on nothing, since one terminates in flightiness, the other in insanity?

Go into high-school laboratories, when possessed of that knowledge that comes from investigation, and you will see why students are so poorly trained. Teachers, ignorant of the time and thought required for making observations and drawing the simplest inferences, are demanding from pupils that which they cannot possibly accomplish. As a result, their muscles are being vigorously exercised, but neither their senses nor their reasoning powers.

Language-study should develop the creative as well as the appreciative faculty. The general complaint that children have nothing of their own to say proves that it does not. Teachers are to blame. They have been trained to appreciate literature. If they would but give themselves constant practice in the art of composing, they would be able in the end to do much more toward inspiring creation on the part of their pupils.

Investigation is as necessary in other branches. Without it teachers will be blinded by that conceit that attacks those whose knowledge is theoretical.

Even psychology is not an exception to the rule that persons of average ability approach a subject through the senses. This explains why many honest and not altogether stupid teachers ignore the study of psychology, or laugh at it, when the reading of books on psychology is so prevalent. Why should not psychology be taken up as is any physical science, by making careful observations? Late experiments prove that psychology, like astronomy, is an exact science. By electricity you can actually measure, in thousandths of a second, the time consumed in mental processes. If normal-school pupils were to make exact experiments with the chronoscope, on the time it takes to think, the book-study of psychology would be made a reality. In after years such students would study what is already known in psychology, unurged, and would even add to present knowledge. In psychometry, for example, the time needed for the various acts of perception, memory, and judgment, which is now unknown, would be soon ascertained, and thus not minutes but hours of a child's time would be saved.

How much more could educational associations do to encourage study in psychology! Even the National Association gives no opportunity to those wishing to state the results of psychological observations and experiments, and of course no papers have been presented. I find some few studies upon children in the published reports, but the necessity of making them sufficiently dilute for the ordinary program has decreased their value. Why should not at least a half-day of this Association be given to hearing the results of such psychological observations and experiments as might be useful from an educational standpoint? Inspection of such papers by a committee should be made before presentation. Leading educators would not offer papers under such restrictions, it has been said. Abstracts of all papers read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science are previously examined, and no one thinks of objecting. It is also objected that the limited time of meeting makes such reports impracticable. Many papers of ten minutes' length could be read in a half-day session. Ten minutes is an eternity to one who is to tell what he himself has seen. All objections are trifling as compared with the arguments which can be adduced to show that this Association should encourage closer observation in psychology and pedagogy by setting aside a time for hearing the records of such work.

Many persons believe that the statement of the causes is that of the reme-

dies. Those, however, who believe in a fundamental cause, usually seek the philosopher's stone. That which I have found is not as perceptible to the senses as that of certain others, but I have great confidence in its potency. I think it desirable, of course, to pass better school laws; to give situations to the best available teachers; to improve supervision; to give greater financial support to the schools, and to establish kindergarten, normal, and manual-training schools; but I do not think that any or all of these things will insure the giving of reasonable mastery of subjects studied unless preceded, constantly accompanied, and always followed by investigation on the part of the teacher.

***"THE SCHOOLS FAIL TO GIVE A PROPER PREPARATION
FOR ACTIVE LIFE."****

JOHN P. IRISH, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

It would seem that a fair discussion of the question with which I am to deal would require that we should have been furnished with the actual measure of duty required of the public schools in the preparation of their pupils for the practical affairs of active life. If we are not furnished with that measure, there is probably no one before me, and may be no one in this land, who can accurately measure the requirements of this part of the public-school system. Then, inasmuch as we are not furnished with the measure of duty required, we are not enabled to measure the delinquency which we are about to discuss; and in the absence of these two themes necessary in a fair discussion, I may be accused of indulging in an unfair discussion of the subject. But let me say this, if I shall be faced with the accusation, that if I seem uncharitable, it is because I expect no more.

In discussing this theme, I feel like a town-crier turned loose with a bell, traveling up and down among the industries and the occupations and the callings and the professions of my native land, ringing my bell and calling aloud for a "lost boy." It is the American school-boy; I am inquiring for him. Now the practical affairs of life are those affairs that we find in motion in the different industries, in the different handicrafts, in the different callings in the country which require manual labor, which require the services of the human hand guided and made skillful by a trained human brain. Now how is it? Perhaps I see it differently, living in these large cities on our Coast, or I have seen it differently from my acquaintance with the industries and practical affairs of life in the large cities on the Atlantic side of our continent. But if I have seen it differently from the rest of you and if I have seen it mistakenly, let this be my apology. But I find — and you

**Stenographer's report.*

will pardon me if I give only facts; I haven't my figures with me, and so I shall not state percentage—I find in New England in the handicrafts, in the industries, in the trades and callings in that part of our country, beginning with Maine and going to the extreme boundaries of our land, that the "American Boy" and the American Woman, the fruit of the public-school system, is almost destroyed. You scratch a weaver and you find a Scotchman or a French Canadian. If I talk with a miner, I find I am conversing with a man from Cornwall. If I address the man who drives the horse on the front end of my street car, or who is on the rear end as a ticket-taker, I am talking with a man from Ireland or Germany. If I visit with my butcher, he is from Westphalia. And when I look abroad among the guardians of the city in which I live, I find that they are not the fruit of the American public school, but are imported to us from abroad.

So I am moved to inquire what has become of the American Boy? I know he has been trained in the schools, for I saw him there for four years of my life—many, many years ago. Before my hair had turned gray I swung a rod over his back myself, in the American public schools. When I parted with him I left him somewhat maimed and crippled, but still alive; but now I cannot find him. I know his blood is not upon my hands, but he has disappeared.

I know that the same proportion holds good. I have gone into our colleges, and into the industries and callings, the professions, all of the occupations which make up what we call the practical business affairs of our country, and I find the American boy—who was the American boy trained in the public schools—I find him missing, I find him lacking, I find him wanting. When I pursue my investigation into the mercantile occupation, he is not found there. What has become of him? I do not know—I do not know.

Now I take it that an adequate training to meet the responsibilities which are thrown upon the men when they are called to take a part in the practical affairs of life—a training that shall make them adequate to those responsibilities—must be a training that gives them that conscientious mental and muscular cultivation that shall enable them to acquit themselves like men in the race of life.

The competitions of life in our land are becoming constantly closer, constantly more severe. A little while ago we had but thirty millions of people; now we have sixty millions, and before my child shall have grown to be a man we shall have a hundred millions. With this, the competitions of life are growing everywhere, and if the American boy is to hold his place upon the soil of his native land, he must, first of all things, be made a man able to take part in the close competitions and stern struggles of actual life.

Now how is it? A boy leaves the school-room; he has gone through the curriculum. He has gone from his alphabet and many more things, some good, some bad. *About thirty years ago, when I was a public-school teacher,*

they did not teach as many things as they do at present. I would not undertake, myself, to pass an examination, or be within hearing distance of an examination, that teachers are required to pass nowadays. Now we get physiology, we get higher mathematics, we get freehand drawing, and we get a great deal of training that was unknown to the public-school curriculum thirty years ago. I know, however, that when the American boy leaves the public school, when he graduates, his parents have sacrificed a great deal of comfort, perhaps, to provide him with a good suit of clothes in which to appear on the last day of school. He has perhaps read an essay upon Romulus or Remus, or some other "mus," but he goes out into the world—and what becomes of him? He goes to a machine shop to seek an opportunity to learn a trade. He goes to a shop and wants to learn cabinet-making, or to some of the other manifold industries and handicrafts, desiring to acquire an expertness in some line of skilled labor; and what does he find? Why, he finds that every one of these industries is in the absolute, autocratical control of the labor guild, in which a majority of the men are those who never occupied a seat in the American public school. What does that guild say to the boy fresh from our public schools, who knows all about Romulus and Remus and Demosthenes and everybody else? What does the guild do to him? It says, "No, sir, you shall not be permitted to apprentice yourself to this trade or handicraft." These are the men, not the product of our public schools, who come to our country, who occupy all places in our great variety of industries. And their manhood is of such stern stuff and such sturdy materials, that they keep out of these callings the American boys who come out of our public schools seeking employment in these various lines. The struggle and rivalry is so active that the American boy goes down in that struggle. The boy goes to his father for permission to work in his factory, but the man who owns the shop or yards, the man who owns the machinery, the man who has his capital invested in the great concern, is not permitted to place his own son in any department to learn the trade.

What, then, is to be done with the American boy? We find that he is crowded out by other men, by guilds made up in their majority of men not of American birth. They fall into these vocations, spurred on by the stern necessities of life and nature, and have fought their way to the control of a calling or trade; they propose to hold it, and the American boy, the product of our public-school system, finds himself too weak to force his way into those callings which make up a large part of what are with us the practical affairs of life.

Now we find a growing desire for a cure for this all over the country, and especially among our public-school teachers—for mind you, my friends, there are no people in all this land, not even the parents of children who sit in your presence, who are more interested in remedying these defects than the American boy who went out well

dressed from the school, as a graduate; in a few years they find him a loafer on the streets of the city in which he started out in life with promise of a useful manhood: until the American school teachers themselves have begun to discuss whether or not some great change should not be made which would render the school-room a place where the American boy can be trained in the skilled trades and handicrafts of life.

So, out of regard for our boys who somehow or other have not been strong enough to stand up in the stern competitions of life against others, we have been forced to study the public-school system, until we are at last compelled to face the fact that we must make the public school itself a training-ground for efficiency in the skilled trades and handicrafts.

But suppose you make the intelligent boy a first-class blacksmith, carpenter, joiner, or shipwright, and turn him out with his trade from the school-room: what assurance have you that the guild that controls in that trade will permit him, after he has been taught a handicraft in the public schools, at public expense, to exercise that handicraft? You have only one assurance: that is, that your public-school system shall at least make of the American boy such a stern and courageous man that he will force his way to his inheritance upon the soil of his country, against all comers and all combinations.

Now I do not know that it is fair that we should expect all this of the public schools. A part of the training which is to prepare American youth for the active and practical concerns of after life may, perhaps, be done elsewhere. But I deal with these facts that are forcing themselves upon the calm and sober consideration of every man in practical business affairs. We have elaborated in detail great systems of political economy that we have crystalized into legislation, to protect and defend, and make independent, what we call American labor. We have sacrificed a great deal; we have given much; and yet, when we walk our way through the ranks of that which we call American labor, expecting to find there the boys of our public schools, we find those places occupied, as I have said, by people who know nothing of the training that is to be found in this public-school system of this great republic.

I do not know whether the fault lies with our public-school system, or at some other point in our free institutions; but wherever the blame rests, it is your duty as school teachers, it is the duty of journalists, public men, politicians, platform-makers, voters and all, to carefully investigate and ascertain where the fault lies, and when found apply the remedy in such a way that it will rectify and correct the growing evil.

In conclusion, you will permit me to say that if I were to advise you — you did not call me here to advise you, you called me here to quarrel with you, you called me here to find fault with your system — but if I were to advise you, my only advice would be that whatever you do, whether you instruct

the pupil in freehand drawing, whether you instruct the boy in geography, or in the rules of grammar, or in manual training, for the sake of God and our common country try to make him a man.

***"THE SCHOOLS FAIL TO GIVE A PROPER PREPARATION
FOR ACTIVE LIFE."***

WILLIAM E. SHELDON, BOSTON, MASS.

There is nothing appertaining to the welfare of the Republic which is more important than the unifying and building of the power and influence of our public-school system. It is easy to point out defects, but it would be difficult to suggest any other instrumentality which would accomplish the supreme ends it seeks to reach. The true mission and work of the ideal school needs to be kept broadly in view in the treating of this subject.

The purposes and aims of the public school are of vital interest to every citizen. It is apparent to every thoughtful student of history that the American public-school system was not devised merely to prepare the children and youth of the land to buy, to sell, and to get gain in the active, material, business pursuits of life. The reason for its inauguration and adoption was primarily to prepare for *good citizenship in the Republic*, based upon intelligence, virtue, and a comprehensive view of and obedience to law.

The teaching in the schools that is based upon correct psychological principles, and presented in accordance with true pedagogical methods, becomes a mighty power in guiding the future life and activity of the pupil in the faithful discharge of the active, practical duties that devolve upon every good citizen. It may justly be said of such instruction in reference to the child:

"Unseen, it helpeth him with faithful hands,—
Unheard, it speaketh stronger than the storm."

The existence and perpetuity of a nation based upon universal suffrage gives the school a prominence, and imposes duties and responsibilities upon the educator, that do not exist under any other form of government. The elementary school is something more than a merely local, utilitarian communal: it is, in an eminent sense, a broad, national institution, upon which the highest weal of the republic depends. The school is not the place where the pupil goes simply to acquire specific knowledge and culture that may be useful to him in *private* life.

The ideal school is the nursery of intelligent citizenship and the inspiring

source of a sterling type of genuine patriotism. This truth was felt and embodied by the early fathers of the republic in the statute laws of Massachusetts, in which it is enjoined upon "all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavors to impress upon the minds of the children and youth committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety and justice, and a sacred regard for truth, love of country, humanity, universal benevolence," and other enumerated, kindred virtues, "which are an ornament to human society, and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded."

Popular education, supported and secured through the use of public funds derived from taxation, cannot properly be restricted to a few elementary branches. The age in which we live is a progressive one, and the demands of our advancing civilization require that the curriculum of studies taught should be broadened from time to time. Enlightened public sentiment confirms this position, and prompts the voluntary action of the people to make munificent appropriations of money for the support of schools of every grade, from the kindergarten to the university. The material wealth of the state is willingly pledged to pay the enormous cost, but, in return, it reasonably demands that the benefits derived from the public-school system should be so complete and comprehensive in their scope as to justify the vast expenditure. The humblest citizen is interested in the maintenance and improvement of our public-school system, because it lies at the foundation of our national existence. The active duties of private and public life are better performed by intelligent, cultivated men and women, than by the ignorant and uncultured.

To make certain these results, the schools must train the young to become intelligent voters, fair-minded jurymen, upright judges, discreet and honest legislators, and incorruptible executive officers.

The time has come when the essential elements of civic instruction should be given in all grades of our public schools. This branch of education will tend to awaken and stimulate sentiments of genuine loyalty to duty and patriotism in the administration of the affairs of the state and nation. Such teaching will develop principles of action that give dignity to the individual, increase respect and reverence for the home, and exert a salutary influence in the discharge of all public and private obligations. Whatever makes the individual citizen more intelligent and conscientious in the discharge of his active, personal duties, will improve the state and the nation. It may not be necessary to make any special change in or addition to the school curriculum to secure the teaching of what is essential to enlightened citizenship. The essence of this kind of instruction should permeate all the work of the teacher. The facts and principles of good citizenship should be so presented as to become the life, the soul of the school. The pupil should absorb the love of country as freely as he breathes in the pure air. It should surround him in the *teaching-atmosphere of the school*. Time and space forbid any

detailed elaboration of a course of study suited to this end. The lessons in history, geography, biographical reading, etc., furnish the opportunities, admirably adapted, to exercise the judgment of the pupil upon the actions of men in their relations as citizens. The close and important relation that exists between the state and the school is so obvious that it needs simply to be mentioned to secure universal assent. We should emphasize the fact that education in the essentials of good citizenship must be begun early to secure the highest results. Lord Bacon said, "Commonwealths and good governments do *nourish virtue grown*, but do not mend the seeds." The young child—the *enfant terrible*—has to be converted by education into a citizen, active and useful, or he will grow up to become an adult of ignorance, the tool of demagogism.

MORAL INSTRUCTION.

The schools must hereafter assign a larger place to instruction in morals. Lessons must be given calculated to make the children and youth of our land honest and upright, as well as *active* members of the body politic. Instruction in character-building cannot be given properly by the formal statement of a few inert formulas or solemn maxims, or even by special exhortations. It should blossom out, and its influence permeate all parts of the work of the schools. Ethical instruction ought to be an important factor in all school training. It should enter into the daily class-work, into every variety of recitation, into the questions of management and discipline, and especially be illustrated by the character, example and daily life of the teacher.

MANNERS.

Intimately associated with moral instruction is that appertaining to good manners. The simple rules of common politeness, and the amenities of polite society, ally themselves closely to the entire range of social virtues that make attractive and useful the life of man or woman. The old French writer was right in saying of the teacher, "He must attend to everything, from the soul of the child to the lacings of his shoes." The true teacher must recognize the fact that in this higher realm there are no trifles in the education of the young, for what may seem trifles may become the pivotal points upon which the future character may be balanced, and then incline to the right or the wrong side of the line of active usefulness and the discharge of duty.

All will agree that the work of the school of to-day is not now what it used to be. Formerly, a fair knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic was deemed sufficient for practical purposes. To-day, one who would gain influence in life, and become widely useful to society and satisfactory to himself, must *not* be content with these restricted acquirements. He must garner for his life-work, and secure a well-stored and cultured mind. The development of the perceptive faculties must be fostered in childhood, and by close and careful training. This will give him power, which if continued *under wise direction*, will meet the reasonable demands of his maturity.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

We would emphasize the importance of some form of physical education in the schools. The valuable results obtained by those nations which have paid especial attention to the cultivation of the body is well known. The narrow chests and undeveloped frames of the children in the American public schools are in sad contrast to the physical perfection of the children of the ancient Greeks. It is also apparent in schools where German and American pupils in New York City are found together, the German children being splendidly developed by exercises in the Turners' societies. Half a century ago 85 per cent. of our male population was engaged in farming or other out-of-door work, while now hardly 40 per cent. are so engaged. In cities and large towns the boys now have no wood to saw or chop, and no fields to play in hardly, while for girls out-of-door play is almost obsolete. Brick walks and concrete school-yards discourage running and romping, and there is therefore urgent necessity for physical exercise and culture to meet the artificial conditions of urban life. There should be simple apparatus and a system of pleasant marches and free gymnastics introduced under proper regulations, which could be taken with piano music to regulate the rythm. Such exercises should be made interesting, and demand alertness and promptness of action, with the body in proper positions for healthy development. The regular teachers of the schools should be prepared to have the general superintendence of physical culture, and be able to guide the children in the laws of growth and health. We would not overestimate this department of school-work, but believe that every school board in cities and large towns should embody physical culture in the course of study in the schools under their control.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

While the school system of our country must be directed toward a preparation for the general duties and privileges of citizenship, there is also demanded a preparation for the practical business and vocations of common life. The kindergarten system, which has already secured a strong hold in this country, is admirably adapted for laying a general foundation for an industrial career. Manual instruction in some of its practical phases should be engrafted into our public-school system. A vast majority of the children now attending the schools must engage ultimately in some industrial occupation. It is to be regretted that a portion of the young people of this country are growing up with a positive distaste for manual labor. We believe that the introduction of manual training into the schools of the country would tend to correct this alarming evil. The training of the hands should have a more important place in school-work than at present. Many pupils are compelled to leave school at an early age, and it is essential that they should receive instruction which will fit them for the active and honourable duties of business life. To this end instruction in drawing should have a place in every course of elementary instruction. Drawing is the simplest

and probably the most generally useful of all the fundamental arts of handicraft. Manual training tends to develop the physical condition of the young, to strengthen the body, and thus prepare them for better intellectual training and discipline than they would be likely to receive without it. It is true that no system of public instruction has yet been devised that fully meets the demands of every special contingency in life; but the American school system should adapt itself to all the reasonable requirements of the individual pupils. It may have been possible in "Dotheboy's Hall," the famous Yorkshire Institute,—the methods of which Mr. Dickens opened to the view of the world,—to prescribe a dose of sulphur and molasses for all the pupils alike, irrespective of the appetite and the condition of the digestive organs. This heroic treatment of ailments is no longer in vogue. Our school system should be arranged with reference to the acquisition of such useful and practical knowledge as is essential for the utilitarian purposes of life, and at the same time to secure the highest mental and moral discipline. To demand that the branches taught in the common schools be restricted to the three "R's," however essential they may be, as the "tools of knowledge," or "the keys to unlock higher culture," is to ignore the essential aims of a common-school education. The "reform" desired is not the restriction of the topics of instruction, but the application and use of better methods of giving it. We should teach the children how to study, how to think, how to wrestle with the problems of life, how to investigate, and how to acquire knowledge for themselves. Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, said, "The effort the boy makes is a hundred times more valuable to him than the knowledge acquired as the result of the effort." Looking forward to a preparation for business life, manual training is a sure element of power in the development of the ability for self-support; and it would seem wise that the state, in spending millions of dollars every year for the support of a school system, should recognize this kind of instruction. If a moiety of the time now spent in "memorizing," "cramming," and the teaching of abstract and technical topics connected even with an elementary course of instruction, could be devoted to an education that would turn out pupils of both sexes with a decided relish for manual labor as a condition of life, both dignified and honorable, it would be a great gain. We believe that a healthy development of the mind through exercise of the senses requires that it should have an expressive side, not merely through speech and writing, but through the hand in practical work, by which the brain and the hand would execute their legitimate functions all the better by being united in harmonious action. It would make the brain more inventive, and the hand more executive.

Herbert Spencer has said that "the child should be taught as little as possible, and induced to discover as much as possible." Teaching that tends to "cramming" is not training. Some one has said that "you cannot empty a bottle with the cork in,"—neither can the child be made to constantly

absorb principles and methods without a free outlet of expression and application. A gun may be loaded with powder and ball to the muzzle, but to be effective it must be provided with a fuse and be fired. A small tug-boat may be used to take the ship out of the harbor through the channel into the open sea, but it cannot be depended upon to cross the tempestuous ocean. The ship must have its own impelling forces of engine or sail.

WASTE OF TIME IN ELEMENTARY DRILL.

Dr. W. T. Harris, an eminent authority in education, in discussing the question of what should be taught to justify the public-school system, very properly places first on the list reading and writing, for the reason that they make possible all subsequent stages of school-work. He then proceeds to outline the branches that should be taught in a regular course for mental discipline and training in the common school. They are arithmetic, geography, history, grammar, and literature. He calls these the "windows opening on five sides in the pentagonal tower of ignorance, in which illiterate man is shut up."

In naming these five great lines of study that radiate from the center and relate to the fundamental departments of learning, it is not to be supposed that Dr. Harris would limit or restrict the instruction to be given by the aid of these branches considered in a technical sense, for he proceeds to remark in the same able paper that "industrial drawing should have its place in the common school." He also remarks that "the knowledge of natural science is of universal application to all human employments that deal with the conquest of nature and lead to the observation of physical operations." Let not our position be misunderstood; we value thorough training in the elementary branches, and agree that such instruction is essential in a system of public schools. Every business man should be able to add, subtract, multiply, and divide; should comprehend percentage, be able to compute interest, etc. The greatest skill in these operations of business arithmetic can never alone form the basis of actual success in a comprehensive business life, for outside of accountants and clerks a facility in these operations has no special value. The most successful business men of this country would make slow work in adding the "ledger columns" of their own books. The real value of elementary studies consists in the means they furnish in forming habits of thought which will develop and broaden the mind for a wider range of the duties of life. It may seem extravagant for us to state our conviction that one-half of the school period, from six to thirteen years of age, would be a fair estimate of the time that should be devoted to strictly technical, abstract work in the elementary branches. The remaining portion of the time would be more profitably spent, in our judgment, in the study of language, literature, history, natural science, and other topics that would give information that would be available in practical life, and at the same time secure the discipline and culture appertaining to a well-ordered mind. We must, in passing, call at-

tention to music as a most important means of physical, mental, and moral culture. The influence which music has always exerted gives it prominence as a branch of common education that demands more general attention. It should be commenced in childhood and continued through the entire course of school training. No one branch of instruction will furnish a more unfailing source of delight to the individual, or a greater blessing to the home and to society. Few studies can claim to contribute so much toward advancing the child in the way of discipline, obedience, and order, and at the same time contribute to the present happiness, possible future occupation, and elevated enjoyment, as the study of music. The time required for a course of musical instruction daily is not large, and the results are very satisfactory, and lead to new sources of enjoyment in life.

The most serious defect in our present school-work is the want of better scientific methods of teaching. Education as a complete science must rest upon psychological principles, and our thought and experimentation as national educators, if we would make sure progress, should be directed toward such investigations as will develop fully the principles by which the construction of a *practical* system of education may be secured, adapted to the demands of every kind of school-work, and flexible enough to reach the needs of the individual mind. Of one thing we are positive, and that is, that any "craze for reform" that looks to the undue exaltation of the merely utilitarian studies, to the neglect of ethical or moral culture, will result in the most disastrous failure, both to the school-system and to the state, whose vital interests it is designed to foster and to perpetuate.

SUMMARY.

1. Our consideration of this subject leads us to remark, that all criticism of our public-school system that tends to weaken public sentiment in regard to its necessity and usefulness as the essential element of safety to the republic is to be deprecated.

2. That the question, What shall the state teach in the public schools? finds its primal answer in the general statement that all that tends to promote the intelligence and virtue of the citizen is of paramount importance. We must educate broadly the children of our land, that the blessings of free institutions may be maintained and perpetuated.

3. That the true wealth of a nation is not found in its material accumulations, or in the skill of its people to acquire money, but in its men and women of character and culture, who aim, in all the relations of life, to elevate and ennoble humanity. Such wealth can only be secured by correct early moral instruction, which should be an essential part of the work done by the educator.

4. That good manners and a knowledge of the amenities of polite society are so closely allied, as elements of power and influence in life, that the *common schools* should furnish such instruction to every child.

5. That such instruction as will best prepare the young for the practical

duties of future life, in the several vocations in which they may engage, warrants the assertion that manual training should be engrafted as a part of the regular course of instruction in the American school.

6. That while the so-called fundamental branches of instruction are "the keys" with which the mind is to be opened to the higher intellectual acquirements, it is not necessary that their teaching should absorb the entire time of the school-period of life.

7. That drill exercises which best test and develop the powers of thinking are those that make effective the instruction given in the school-period; that merely technical and mechanical methods may be so largely adopted that the pupils will lose their relish for the more inspiring and ennobling branches of study that should be incorporated in every system of public instruction; that the great need in our present school system is the improvement of *methods* of elementary instruction by which the children may be trained to investigate, compare, and analyze, and secure to themselves habits of correct thinking; that it is time that mere "cramming" and "memorizing" methods of instruction should become obsolete, and that such training should be substituted as will make the children of our land independent and original in their mental processes, and fit them for the practical duties of life.

8. That the American school system should aim to secure to the children of the nation well-balanced, vigorous, healthy minds; that every form of psychical activity should be as full and as comprehensive as the maturity of the child will warrant; that there should be no "Procrustean" bed made for children; that we must recognize that there are differences of capacity of a greater or less degree, and that the curriculum of study should be flexible and extensive enough to cover the average demands of the young who possess normal and healthy minds.

9. That to these ends *thoroughness* should characterize the work done in the elementary branches, which are the "tools" which every child will need for use in subsequent acquisitions; that the foundation-stones must be well laid in order that the intellectual pyramid of the future may be securely built; that the true success of school-work depends largely upon the order of studies, and the method of their teaching; that true training is developing the mind in accordance with correct principles; and that the great end to be sought in intellectual education is the formation of habits of right-thinking, which, guided by principles of a pure morality, will prepare the young to become a blessing to themselves, ornaments to society, and the bulwarks of the state.

DISCUSSION.*

WILLIAM E. SHELDON, OF MASSACHUSETTS: Before the discussion is entered upon, I would ask the privilege of making a personal explanation. In my allusion to St. Louis, which has produced a little agitation on the platform, to my great rejoicing—for I love agitation when it will develop new truth—I only referred to St. Louis as one of eight cities whose curriculum of study had been examined very carefully. I intended to pay St. Louis a compliment, as its percentage is the lowest of all the cities named. Some run as high, as reported to me, as ninety per cent. I take back everything I said which may have been construed as derogatory to St. Louis. I simply mentioned it as a specimen. I hope my friend Soldan and all others from St. Louis and Missouri will remember Dr. Harris's great work of years ago. It pointed in the right direction.

I am well aware, also, that it is impossible to state figures that will give anything but an approximation of the time devoted to merely technical training in each case. My criticism is all directed against drill, drill, drill, drill, over and over, on this, that or the other matter already known to pupils.

THOMAS J. MORGAN, OF RHODE ISLAND: In the ten minutes allotted to me, I intend to ask your attention to a criticism made upon the public-school system, namely: that it does not teach morality. I think it but fair to repeat to you what has already been emphasized in the paper read to you by Professor Cook: that "the public schools of America are what the people of America make them." They are an expression of the life of the American people. The teachers who give instruction in them come from the home. The children that sit as pupils in those schools are the children that come from the families of American domestic life. The trustees who administer the affairs of those schools, the superintendents who supervise them, are those who express the common or average sentiment of the American in reference to the public-school system.

It is fair, therefore, if there be any criticism made upon the public schools, that it shall not be a criticism upon the school teachers alone, nor upon the system alone, but that the responsibility for whatever defect may be found in them shall be placed at the doors of all alike—teachers, parents, trustees, directors. I am prepared to go further than that, and to say that I believe that the school teachers of this country represent a higher average moral sentiment than the average sentiment of the American people itself.

The school teachers of America are educated; they must be, in order to do their work. They are examined for their places; they are supervised in their work. They stand out, therefore, as those who represent certainly the

**Stenographer's report.*

average moral sentiment of the community. I believe that the spirit which leads young men and young women to consecrate themselves to the work of teaching is not a money-getting spirit. It is not a selfish spirit. I have been in the habit of mingling with hundreds and thousands of young men and women who seek an occupation in teaching, and they come, almost universally, saying that the great motive that prompts them to enter the work is the desire to do good; and I think that is a truthful statement. Institute a comparison. (Comparisons, it is said, are always odious, yet we may get at some facts.) I look into the faces, this morning, of this great body of teachers. Last year I stood in the presence of ten thousand, as many as could get into the great hall at Chicago. I have been accustomed to mingle with teachers of the United States, and I have been thinking, How do they compare in personal character with the average American citizen? What topics do they discuss? Take this topic, here, this morning—"How shall we make our schools more efficient in the doing of their work?" Compare the body of school teachers in the United States with any body of people that gather together, representing American life; compare them with the average common council; compare them with the average political gathering; compare them with the average legislature; compare them with the average men that gather together to administer the affairs of railroads, and other corporations; compare them with the average men or women that gather together to administer any great public trust among us; listen to their discussion; listen to the sentiments that they consider—and then answer me this question: Are they below the average sentiments of the people in which they live, and for which they labor?

There are great forces at work in America tending to drag down moral life; tending to the destruction of the Sabbath, to the betrayal of financial trusts, to the committing of crime. Can all these things be charged to the public schools? I answer that there is no evidence that the public schools are deficient, and that the tendency of their work is toward the lowering of the moral tone of the nation. I stood the other day down at the railway station in the great city, where there were railroad trains starting off with Sunday excursionists. Why was this? Simply because the people demanded it; that was the excuse. It required a brass band to fill up the train in order that those who managed it might make money out of it. School teachers didn't do it.

I tell you that the influence of the newspapers in this country—I have great respect for them, great respect for reporters, (having been a reporter myself,) great respect for the editors—yet I tell you that spreading before our youth from day to day all the details of crime, is aiding vastly toward the lowering of the moral tone of the nation. Many of the critics of the public school would do well to cease complaining of it and of its lack of morality, and direct their attention to this demoralizing tendency of feeding the mass of the people from day to day on the enormities and the details of *crime in our midst*.

Now I have two minutes more. I want to make a point now that will stick in your minds. It is sometimes said that our public schools fail to teach morality, and therefore there should be substituted for them the parochial school or private school. I want to ask your attention to this fact. I know whereof I speak. I have studied carefully the utterance that I make. When that statement is made for the purpose of destroying the public schools, it means what? That the public schools do not teach honor and truth, the ordinary tenets of morality? No! It simply means that the public schools of this country are not Roman Catholic. What is our answer to that? I wish I had half an hour, not to stir up a sectarian spirit, but simply to discuss this matter, because the criticism is made and repeated over and over again, and because this is the club that is designed to knock our public-school system into pieces. I have traced this matter to this source. I have studied it, and it simply means that it is a challenge to our civilization, it is a challenge to our Christianity, it is a challenge to our political life, it is a challenge to everything that we Americans cherish to-day. To say that the common schools are godless, that they do not teach morality, and that they do not teach religion, and therefore they must be set aside, stirs up a deep sentiment within us. We will be asked at no distant day to recognize that there is no religion except Catholicism; that there is no worship except that of the cathedral; that the state has no right to exist except as the servant of the church. In other words, if you yield, if you accept that criticism as just, you yield everything that we prize in the civilization of the nineteenth century, represented by Martin Luther, and represented in its outflowering by American ideas; you recognize that all that is a sham and a pretense, that it is to be thrown aside, and that we are to go back to mediævalism, with all that that condition implies.

IRA MORE, OF CALIFORNIA: That the schools are criticised, is true. Every teacher knows it. That the criticism is often just is also true. Let us who have the popular education at heart, thank God and take courage that it is so. Why? Were we beyond just criticism, then should we be perfect; we should have attained all that is best in our work; we should have reached the maximum of our stature; there would be hereafter no growth nor development. Our successors would tread exactly in our steps, with no possible ambition to excel. There would be a dead level of perfection which is no better than a dead level of mediocrity. Life means growth and change; and with no possibility of either we are dead mentally, and might as well be so physically. Let us then rejoice that owing to the common weakness of humanity, we are able to strive for higher levels than we can attain unto, and that the future teacher will, not less than we, form ideals to be striven for, but not equaled.

Let us also rejoice that much of the current criticism is unjust; that those who make it are ignorant judges, who know not the true basis of criticism; *who form ideals and standards* they know not what, and lash with censure

the unfortunate teacher who does not conform. In particular, these harsh critics, who seem to have made this world just before they sat down to write this critical newspaper or magazine article, seldom realize that there is no absolute standard of attainment, but that all things of human knowledge or judgment are relative; they forget that in human institutions, perfection means completely fitted to poor imperfect natures, and is, judged by an absolute standard, highly defective. What could we do with an absolutely perfect government? It would to us, the half-civilized descendants of the quarter-civilized Angles and Saxons, be the most exquisite torture. Rather the heavy burden of human slavery, or the rack of the Inquisition, than a faultless government for a miserably faulty people.

The question then stands: Is our work as well fitted to the needs of the American people as is the work of other callings — preaching, medicine, and law? If so, who shall fling a stone at us? Let us for a moment, in no carping spirit, but for needful comparison alone, glance at these professions.

The preacher with a modern head and heart, and much of modern culture, practices methods inherited from the Dark Ages, and centuries behind the needs of to-day, taken from the time when the priest stood before the people the exponent of God's will, and his word was law because inspired. There was no questioning nor answering back; 'twas for the people to hear and obey. Now we do not think the man inspired, or that he knows more of the subject than we, except as he has mastered it by obvious methods — study and reflection. And still he speaks in the old authoritative manner: talking to people whose brains are busy with other lines of thought which he gives them no chance to express. What wonder he laments that preaching has lost its force, and that his work must be done, if at all, by personal visitation, and by familiar talks and discussions in the Sunday-school?

Turn we to the physician, and we find him dealing out pills and plasters, in great doubt as to which is the better, this or that. Often would he give no medicine at all, were he not expected to earn the money paid him. The underlying laws of health and disease, mysteries to us, are only a little less so to him. A recent statement from a good authority is that a hundred thousand people die yearly in the United States from easily preventable diseases. What is medical science doing, that it thus neglects drainage, and ventilation, and qualities of water and food, and substitutes its miserable pills and potions for the ills of mankind? Let him who loves shortness of days employ many physicians.

The cry of mankind at this day is for justice, and justice should come through law. Every man's right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness should be assured to him by the law in whose shadow he dwells. Does his neighbor claim a portion of his land by a false line? Are his rights in any way trespassed upon? The case should be examined by competent, unbiased men, a decision speedily rendered in the interest of justice, and the man restored to his right at once with but slight expense to him. This

would fit the law to the needs of the people. But how do we find it? The law is expensive. Better to suffer the trespass which takes a part of my property, than seek my right at the law which takes the whole of it. If I prosecute one who has done me bodily injury, I must give time and money to it, and it is no salve to my aching bones that he creeps through the meshes of the law on a technicality, or pays a fine which goes to the state. I have seen the criminal out on bail while the innocent witness was kept in jail to await the trial. Lawyers are trained to twist the meaning of words, to find and practice all possible obstructions to the course of law; and he is most expert and in the highest demand who is most skillful in thwarting the course of justice. The worse cause pays the better fee and commands the highest talent; and with a jury of simple, unlearned men, the greater skill wins its cause. Hence men avenge themselves of their adversaries, communities rise up and slay the murderer, lawlessness abounds that justice may be done.

Now teaching may not be, and is not, entirely fitted to the needs of the age. We have men with their hands to the plow and their eyes turned backward. There are men who value Greek roots more than all the products of a modern soil; men who deal in abstractions without the underlying experience and investigation, who forget still that the abstract is based upon the concrete, though every book and pamphlet and lecture is full of it. There are some who are hammering away upon mind to the utter neglect of body, thus seeking to build a beautiful superstructure, but having no care for the foundation.

Spite of all these drawbacks, the great body of teachers are fully awake to the needs of the age, and earnestly striving to fit the coming men and women to life as it exists; who gain wisdom from the lessons of the past, and, deftly avoiding the intense bread-and-butter tendencies of to-day which would make but "a city of pigs, Socrates," build for strength and endurance, both of body and mind.

Let us take no pessimistic view of life. All professions are falling more or less slowly into line, and adapting themselves to surrounding conditions. But to the unbiased mind, the palm of special fitness must be seen to belong to the profession in whose interests and for the upbuilding of which we are met here to-day.

JEROME ALLEN, OF NEW YORK: The first remark I desire to make is this: The average criticism on the public-school system of the United States is not worthy of notice. For instance, the other day I read this: A young lady, a graduate of the Philadelphia High School, or some high school in Pennsylvania—not in New York—was crossing the river over into Richmond, Virginia, with her mother, and she turned to her mother and said, "Mother, is this the Amazon river?" And that story has been told, I suppose, ten thousand times, as an evidence of the failure of our public-school system.

Now another story I heard the other day was this: A teacher was requiring her pupils to recite a lesson in geography, and asked the question, "What is one portion of Kentucky distinguished for?" The answer was, that from the great number of bones and large teeth found in a certain part of Kentucky, it was supposed that that region was formerly inhabited by mastodons. Well, this pupil was asked the question before a number of visitors, and she said: "From the great number of bones and large teeth found in this region, it is supposed that it was formerly inhabited by Methodists." The young lady did not understand the meaning of the word mastodon, but did know something about Methodists. Now that story has been told many times, as evidence of the failure—the absolute failure—of the common-school system of America.

Something has been said this morning concerning manual training—physical training. One very enthusiastic teacher has said, many times, (I refer to Dr. Woodward, of St. Louis,) that "we must send the whole boy to school—all there is of the boy. The whole boy must be educated." The distinguished gentleman who addressed us this morning advocated the introduction of trades into the public-school system. I shall take issue with Mr. Irish in reference to that position, because we are not here to educate boys to become blacksmiths or carpenters. We are not here to educate our girls to become seamstresses. We are here to educate our boys and girls to take hold of anything and everything to which they are required to turn their attention. Perhaps I may not have understood Mr. Irish in his position; perhaps the remarks were not exactly understood by the audience. If so, I beg his pardon. Manual training is to be introduced into the schools of this country; that is, one feature of the training of the hand, the training of the eye, the training of the ear, and the training of the senses. Why? That our boys may become blacksmiths? No. That our girls may learn to sew well? No; but that they may become well-educated.

Now the question before the American people to-day, one great question before those who have the management of our schools, is how to fit the boy for the practical affairs of life. Can a boy be well educated without learning to spell very well? Was Abraham Lincoln a well-educated man? We would all say, yes; and yet Abraham Lincoln could not spell all the words of the English language; he repeatedly made mistakes. And I presume he could not translate many passages in the Greek classics. Yet in his character he was a well-educated man, because he had a grasp of ideas and the power to solve the problems of life.

We have during the past laid great stress upon the technicalities of an education. I remember when I was in college, the professor sat behind a desk, pencil in hand, carefully noting every mistake and marking each paper on the scale of ten, and afterwards these marks were reduced to a scale of one hundred, and the record was placed in the large books of the college, and remains there to this day. Some of us think they could perhaps

have pursued a different course, and so some of us have come to think that there is too much of the per-cent. system in our schools; that we are running—to use a common expression—the graded-school system “into the ground;” that we are doing too much of this marking and too much of this grading, and that we are reducing all the boys and girls to the same level and not giving an opportunity for individuality. I know in some of our larger cities our teachers are very much circumscribed. I heard a remark made a few years ago by an assistant superintendent in one of our largest cities when asked by one of the teachers, “Shall I read an educational work or educational book?” And he said, “Don’t trouble yourself about reading that book, but attend to the manual; the manual will tell you what to do.” She read the manual, and became an acceptable teacher as far as that grade was concerned.

Let those who would pull down our public-school system get something better before they destroy it. The difficulty with many critics of the public school is that they destroy without creating. The creative power is far higher than the destructive power. Our public-school system has come to stay, and it will remain as long as we have a nation, for there is nothing in all this broad land that is exerting so much of an influence for good as the system of public instruction. The minister has his audience before him for a short time once a week, but the teacher every day for five days in the week. Our system of public instruction has saved our country in the past, and it will save it in future great crises, whenever they shall come upon this nation.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, OF MISSOURI: The discussion this morning has taken a turn which at times seemed to be almost personal. The subject of the discussion, “Public Criticism,” has reflected itself, perhaps, to some extent, in the spirit of the discussion. I should do injustice to the occasion if I were to reply to what seemed personal in a personal spirit. I simply wish in regard to some of these matters to state the truth in a friendly way, to my friend from Boston. Perhaps he will allow me to ask a question. I feel almost overpowered with the weight of criticism that he brought to bear after referring to me for a moment, personally, in connection with the city of St. Louis. I have nothing to do with the supervision of the St. Louis schools. I am not personally responsible for them. While he was speaking, I was very strongly reminded of a time so long ago that I do not care to mention the number of years, when, as a boy, I stood before my father and received a scolding for a thing I knew I had not done, and I did not know what he was scolding me for. I want first to ask what I have been scolded for to-day, and then to reply. May I ask my friend Mr. Sheldon to state what he means by “drill.” Does he mean by drilling the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, etc.? In his statement that seventy per cent. of the time of the schools is given to drill, does he mean that seventy

per cent. of the time is given to the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography?

MR. SHELDON: Precisely that. The course of study requires certain branches to be taught between the years of six and thirteen, in St. Louis and in all cities. I secured the curriculum of study laid out by the boards of education, for which my excellent friend Soldan is not at all responsible, and that is the result of an approximate estimate of the time devoted in the school hours to actual technical drill.

MR. SOLDAN: You say there are other cities that spend more than that time in these matters?

MR. SHELDON: Yes; some spend ninety per cent. St. Louis is the most progressive.

MR. SOLDAN: I feel like asking Mr. Irish to continue the ringing of that bell, and ascertain what has become of the thirty per cent. If seventy per cent. of the time is given to instruction in the common branches of knowledge, I feel like sending out that man with a bell in order to find out what has become of the other thirty per cent. I believe Mr. Sheldon is right when he said that what he said about us he meant for praise, and not for blame.

MR. SHELDON: Let me ask you a question.

PRESIDENT GOVE: This ten minutes belongs to Mr. Soldan, and he can dispose of it as he pleases.

MR. SHELDON: I simply want to tell him what was done with the other thirty per cent. Instruction in morals, instruction in good manners, instruction in patriotism, instruction in music—all those general things that make more of a citizen than the mere drill in the school-room—these only receive thirty per cent.

MR. SOLDAN: I am thankful that in Mr. Sheldon's opinion we have at least thirty per cent. of that.

I wish to say a word in regard to the matter of drill. I am not here to defend, as I have said, St. Louis. All I can say is, that she defends herself. I cannot show you the St. Louis schools, but I can refer you to a specimen of the work on exhibition here, and I modestly point to it as a defense against the attacks of my friend from Boston. There is a good deal of criticism against the public schools. The morning has been devoted to showing in what respect that criticism is unjust or unfounded. I believe that all of that criticism is useful. And surely we should not resent public criticism against the public schools, when in our own midst we indulge in the full freedom of criticism. I beg to show for a moment that, while criticism may be unjust, as much of it is, criticism nevertheless is eminently useful, and we ought to be thankful for the criticism that is launched against the public schools. I passed through one of your finest cities in the West the other day, and the *finest building in that place* is a public school. Every citizen

that talks with you points to it with pride and says it is the finest building in the town. Go to that town fifty years hence, if it should grow like our old cities, pass through the streets, and amidst mansions and palaces you will find an humble building that looks poor and commonplace, and you will hear the noise of the school-room, but the citizen no longer points to that building with pride as a specimen of architecture. It has passed the period in which it was ornamental and now it is simply useful. And so it is in these things that, when the pride which the state takes in these external appointments has passed away, the period of criticism begins, and there is a just basis for it in all human enterprises.

FRED. M. CAMPBELL, OF CALIFORNIA: I did not expect to have been in the room at this time, but I have been detained, and I arise not so much to give expression to any words of my own as to repeat something that was said after a discussion somewhat similar to this, by one who has passed away, one who is very dear to us all here, and who was connected with our university. Californians will know to whom I allude—E. R. Sill. I want to give you a word that he said in answer to some criticism on public schools. I wish to say, first, that it has been my observation, in a very extensive connection with public-school work on this coast, that wherever the church or the Sunday school fails in its mission, people look to the public schools. If the mechanic finds it impossible to give his boy a trade on account of the guilds that have been organized, he will turn to the public school and ask that the public school teach his boy a trade. If the farmer finds a destroying insect at work on his crops, he turns to the public schools, and wants us to teach all about plant-destroying insects. If the doctor finds that the people are dying all around him on his hands, he wants the public school to do his work, and teach physiology and hygiene in its minutest details. And so on. These gentlemen tell us of the ills of society that exist in spite of the public schools, but they could not—any of them—paint with the most eloquent tongue the dire calamities there would be if it were not for the public schools. The newspaper men are at work producing a bad effect upon the morality of the young in this country, by publishing the minutest details of every brutal prize-fight, of every bit of scandal in every part of the world, of every Sunday picnic and Sunday excursion; and then they turn right over, and in the next column will write an editorial on the failure of the public schools to make moral citizens.

My friend, as I was going to say, who is now dead, arose quietly in his place—he was a modest man of a few words, but with deep thought—and he said: “I simply want to relate a story, and it is a very short one;” and he left it to be thought of. The story was this: Some young men had gathered together in the room of one of the company for a pleasant evening. The time had passed rapidly, it was getting late, the weather was threatening; it was not very favorable when they went in, but was threatening rain. *When they were about through*, one of the number was requested to step to

the door and report the condition of the weather outside. Not being familiar with the house, he opened the door which did not lead outside at all, but into a dark closet. He looked in, closed the door, came back, and made his report. They asked him what kind of weather it was outside, and he told them that "It is as dark as thunder, and it smells of cheese." Mr. Sill turned to the gentlemen who had been offering this criticism, and said: "Gentlemen, in making most of these criticisms you have simply been opening the wrong door."

MR. JONES, OF CALIFORNIA: I wish to say a word, if you please, in answer to the question of how to find that American Boy. We, as teachers, find him in the school-room, and we send him forth; but we have been told to-day, that when he goes home to his father's house, if his father be a shop-owner, or the owner of a printing-office, and the boy asks to be admitted to learn the trade, his father cannot admit him. Now, where is the lack of manhood—in the father, or in the school-boy? If I were an American father, and owned a ship yard, or a machine shop, or a printing-office, and my boy wanted to be admitted to learn that trade, and the autocracy of which we have been told here to-day should say he could not come in, I would be father enough, and have manhood enough, to say that he *shall* come in. If the American father has manliness enough to support the manliness of his boy whom we send forth from our American school-rooms, it will be but a little while until the American boy shall be found where the American boy ought to be—at the head and front of every great enterprise.

THEME: "PRACTICAL" EDUCATION.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL VIEW.

JAMES H. BAKER, DENVER, COLORADO.

I. Here is a being born into the world with all the possibilities before him which are implied by possession of the wonderful faculties,—human intellect, sensibility, and will. He is to gain a knowledge of the world and of his own powers; he is to develop his capability for the emotions which constitute the happiness or misery of man; he is to cultivate his will-power with reference to his moral conduct and the practical needs of his material existence.

II. The power to *know*, to *enjoy*, and to *do*, in a high degree, and in the right way, is, then, the desirable attainment for man. Hence education is the process of developing the mental activities—knowing, feeling, and willing.

The ultimate aim of education we believe to be ideal manhood; for we may suppose that state and society and all the valuable products of inventive skill and industrial energy are not ends in themselves, but that they, in a final analysis, contribute to the higher interest of man. It is common to make good citizenship the aim of education, but the ideal man is also an ideal citizen, as exemplified by the character of Socrates and his relations to the Athenian democracy. Any state, the organization of which is not in harmony with ideal manhood, must yield to progress in the interest of the individual. At one time belief in the divine right of kings was deemed necessary for good citizenship; but states are outgrowing that idea, and have, in the past, outgrown many others partly through the influence of liberal education. Education has higher aims than citizenship: it makes men and reconstructs states. It places the Bacons and the Luthers at the head of progress; it nourishes the soul-energy of a people which blossoms and fructifies in a thousand ways. Education at the common expense may be demanded in the name of the individual and mutual interests of mankind. This view reaches beyond the right of the state to educate for its own defense. Another view of education makes its aim the preparation to earn a living; but the training of faculty incidentally does this in a general way. The fruition of developed soul-power is largely in action; and the higher its development the more intelligent and energetic will be the action.

III. We must suppose that all the powers of a human being are given *him for a useful purpose*; that they are interdependent, and so interact that

the usefulness of one is enhanced by the symmetrical development of all. That a pupil has not a natural aptitude and tendency for some studies, the pursuit of which would tend to develop certain powers, is no reason for neglecting those studies; they may be the very ones he most needs for general education. If a child has a weak limb, much care is given to it, that it may be strengthened and enabled to perform its office for the use of the whole physical man. The other limbs are comparatively useless without it. The examiner of applicants for positions in the police and fire departments of Boston, in a recent article on physical exercise, says: "What a man requires is a symmetrical development. I examine for symmetry. A man is the greatest work of God when he is symmetrical." What is true of the body, in this respect, is also true of the mind. Symmetry cannot always be attained, and in many cases it would not be economy to attempt it; but the aim should constantly be toward symmetry.

It seems evident that the symmetrical development of the mental powers should be continued, if practicable, until they are ready for a high degree of useful activity; until the pupil is conscious of them and may employ them unaided. The various accidents and circumstances of life are to be considered, and one may be so situated that he cannot obtain a high education. A child may not possess such powers and tendencies as warrant the expenditure of time and money for more than a rudimentary training. But the law should be, Educate ideally as far as practicable. This leads to the important question, Where shall the line be drawn between general and special education? In other words, Where shall the university begin? Some would locate this line at the end of the college course; some at the end of the sophomore year, or even at the end of the high or grammar school. It is difficult to discover the economical ratio between general and special education—the ratio which would in a lifetime yield the highest result for manhood and usefulness. But psychology will throw some light on the problem. Not before the age of sixteen, or eighteen, are the higher powers of the intellect brought into prominent use. To this point, then, at least, general education should be pursued. To become a mental athlete, one must pursue it much farther.

IV. (a.) Let us review briefly the work of the school in training mental faculty. It will be necessary to give, not an exhaustive but merely a suggestive outline, calling attention to well-known facts. In this view we omit, as not necessary for our purpose, three potent factors in education, namely: unaided contact of the mind with nature; the influence of the family and companions; the doctrines of the church.

In the PRIMARY-SCHOOL PERIOD, *Perception* is trained by handling and observing objects; *Memory* incidentally by all the work of the grade and in special ways, as memorizing gems of literature; *Imagination* by tales and descriptions and such designs and constructions as are employed in the kindergarten; the *Thinking Faculty* by use of simple judgments and reasons.

Proper *Emotion* is fostered in many ways adapted to the disposition and needs of the child; the *Will* is strengthened by the restraints and demands of the school-room. The mind gains control of the body through such exercises as reading, speaking, singing, writing, calisthenics, and the sports of the play-ground.

In the GRAMMAR-SCHOOL PERIOD, most of this work is continued, and in addition *Memory* and *Imagination* are exercised in geography and history; the *Reason* is trained by elementary science, grammar, and the processes of arithmetic.

During the HIGH-SCHOOL PERIOD, *Perception* is used in drawing and in studying specimens and observing experiments. *Memory* is exercised in connection with all the work, the absolute memory in retentive acquisition of selections in literature, theorems in geometry, and the principles of science; the philosophical memory in all retention of knowledge in logical relations. The *Imagination* is exercised in the study of literature, and in many other ways. The *Inductive Reason* is trained by inductions in science and history; the *Deductive Reason* by mathematics. The finer *Emotions* are developed in the study of literature, and the growth of the feelings and desires in general naturally follows the accumulation of knowledge. The *Will* is trained in various ways to choose in view of worthy motives and to engage in vigorous and long-continued effort. The mind gains control of the body through drawing, gymnastics, and military drill.

(b) Not all these means of education are employed in all schools; in many schools where they are employed they are not carried out with a proper knowledge of the use and aim of studies. Often the profound significance of drawing and calisthenics in giving the mind control over the body is not understood, and the great educational importance of ordinary school discipline and requirements in cultivating habits of promptness, obedience, neatness, regularity, respect, self-control, etc., is often overlooked. But a correct psychology recognizes the importance of these means of training, and their intelligent use is employed more and more yearly. The ideal product of a perfect and complete school system should possess a vigorous and accurate intellect to discover Truth, refined emotions for the enjoyment of the Beautiful, strength of will to choose the Good, and a healthy body, over which the mind is regnant, which it possesses and uses for external expression and action. Perfect ideals are never attained; but it is enough to show that this work of the schools tends toward these ideal results, and more nearly produces them than any other means. As before implied, educational methods are still hampered by the notion that knowledge in the sense of preserved facts, is the purpose of education. This results from an ignorance of psychology and its applications to the work of education. But training aims at more than knowledge: it arouses the imaginative and rational faculties of the intellect, those creative and discovering powers *which ever reach for more knowledge*. If the aim of education is not the

memory of happy experiences, but the power to enjoy, not a record of deeds, but the power to act, it is not less true that its aim is not knowledge, but the power to know.

V. Thus far we have considered the work of the schools in training faculty, and the ideal results; we may now consider the results from a practical standpoint. The educated youth may apply his knowledge of history to existing government and society; by the aid of mathematics he may apply his knowledge of the laws of nature to practical industries and inventions; his knowledge of himself gained through literature and mental science may be a source of activity and wise conduct. But most important of all, he may direct his power to gain knowledge toward any new and practical acquisition. His knowledge of worthy motives, combined with altruistic feelings, may make him an agreeable member of society. His will-power may control his conduct and make him a law-abiding citizen, or may lead to vigorous action in the practical affairs of life. The control of the mind over the body may be employed in any occupation requiring skill and dexterity.

This is a practical age, and no picture too bright can be drawn of the advantages of a high material civilization for bettering the condition of all classes of men. The necessity of being an active factor in the busy world of usefulness cannot be too strongly urged. But our material progress is dependent upon soul activity. This activity is nourished by general education. Soul activity finds expression in a thousand practical ways. We educate highly that the man may have more power, that he may have many resources; that he may do better what he has to do, and may not be dependent on one means of support or one set of conditions. It is not so much labor with the hands, as intelligent directive power, which is needed, and this power is largely derived from general education. Intelligent men are intelligent laborers. An educated man will learn more quickly, work more successfully, and attain a higher standard than the ignorant artisan. Theory teaches and practice proves that in business and manual pursuits, educated men bring an intelligence to their work and accomplish results impossible for the ignorant man; that as a class they average high in all practical activities. There should be no haste to enter a trade. Life is long enough to accomplish all that may be done, and all the preparation made for its duties is a wise economy. It is hardly necessary here to state the inference that general education is practical education.

Right here I wish to say what I should have said this morning, had it not been for the controversy between my friends from the "Hub" and from St. Louis, as to what Mr. Irish said concerning the "American Boy." He said he had been wandering up and down the land, mournfully inquiring for the "lost American boy," but was unable to find him. Now the only reason was, he did not look high enough! I have found the American school-boy; that is no new discovery; he has been found, time and time again, by many others. *"I have not brought with me the figures, but have the facts."* X

say the American school-boy is found in the legislative halls; he is found in all the learned professions; he is found, like our friend, editing newspapers and moulding public opinion; he is found directing industries; he is found producing valuable and useful inventions; he is found as a useful, trusted and honorable clerk; and everywhere he is found as an upright, honorable, earnest citizen—an ideal citizen, the preserver of our great American institutions.

VI. Having presented a view of what seems the proper work of the schools, it remains to consider some popular demands made in the name of practical education.

(a) The demand for *less of general education* before the special is one of the most prominent. This demand does not necessarily imply that its authors believe that there is too much preparation for life-work. Indeed, few of them would wish that preparation to be less than upon the average is made. They would simply change the ratio between general and special training. We believe that a critical examination of rational courses of study in the schools would show that little of the work could well be omitted; that nearly all contributes toward the end of a well-rounded education, indeed is necessary to that end; and that the training of faculty is only well begun at the end of the high-school course. Even the study of the classics, against which so much argument is directed, besides other incidental advantages trains the critical powers, refines the taste, and is in an important sense a subjective study. The inference is that with less of general education the forces of one's being would not be properly trained and marshaled for active service in life.

(b) The demand for *more of practical work* in general education, as book-keeping, applied science, study of our government, etc., is good, provided the broadest knowledge and the best training may thus be secured. But book-keeping is very meager in general principles. In the study of science and mathematics the knowledge of principles and the power to master principles are of first importance. The youth who has a general acquaintance with physics, arithmetic, algebra and geometry may apply his knowledge in a hundred ways. The study of local history and government is narrow; that knowledge of men and institutions that is gained by study of general history may be applied to problems of the day, and a repetition of the foolish history of the past may be avoided. We conclude that this demand, stripped of its false guise, is a demand for special education before its time.

(c) The most important demand is for *manual training*. Reviewing our analysis of the work of the school-periods, we find that no faculty is neglected; and that, moreover, eye and hand are trained by drawing, and the muscular sense is educated in a general way by calisthenics, sports, etc.; i. e., the body, as the instrument of the mind, is trained, as well as the mental faculties—the mind has possession of the body. What more remains to be done? Is work in wood and iron general education? Certainly to a very

limited extent. It would be easy to point out all the kinds of mental activity employed in making a box, but we should find no power not well exercised in other ways. The training of the muscular sense by work in wood and metal is very little in addition to what is received from sources previously mentioned, and the training is hardly adapted, for instance, to a watch-maker, or a violinist; "the hand of little employment hath the daintier sense." It may be further stated, that no ideas are gained through manual training which are not acquired in drawing. Manual training is not equally good for the lawyer and the mechanic. Its tendency is toward the mechanical trades. It is argued that the work of manual-training schools is giving expression to thought. True, but in a limited field; and the pupil has such practice in other ways. Another argument is, that it interests the boys, and tends to keep them in school. This end might also be attained by improved methods of instruction, and more laboratory work. The argument that work in wood and iron brings the mind in contact with the material world, and gives common-sense views of labor, seems to me the strongest that is offered by the advocates of manual training in the public schools. In this age, it hardly seems necessary to use special means to materialize anything, and the whole course of instruction in the schools, and the weight of influence in society, to-day exalts the position of all useful labor. If manual training cannot be defended as general education, some of its advocates would urge the fact that it prepares to earn a living. If the boy who is to be a mechanic should not first study law, medicine, theology, diplomacy, methods of teaching, etc., no more should the boy who is to be a lawyer first study mechanical construction. Let the pupil be educated in all his faculties and powers to a certain point—the highest possible, and then let him work in wood and iron, if that is to be his calling. Let him then study law, or medicine, or engineering, or farming, in special schools, and let there be plenty of them. But let us not put forward as general education that which is evidently special, or rob general education for the sake of the special.

For those who think that the great need is practical education, in the narrow sense of that term, there is an ample field outside of the schools. In large cities there is a class of unfortunate children who grow up in ignorance, uselessness, and vice, because they are subject to no proper care and influence. Let the advocates of practical reform in education attend to a neglected duty, and after giving these unfortunates a modicum of general education, let them seek to provide a way for teaching them some useful occupation. Until this work is done, the *laissez faire* principle may well be applied to the schools that are performing regular and useful functions.

VII. (a) If we define practical education as *that which is capable of being turned to use, or account*, a high degree of general education before the special is eminently practical, inasmuch as it broadens and heightens a man's possibilities. Moreover, it is of service to all that even a few should be educated ideally. Such education *places ideals before men* which tend to elevate them.

We cannot easily estimate the value to the world of a genius—one of those men who stand on nature's heights and see with clear vision, and proclaim the glories of their view to listening men; who picture at least feebly the things described. They are the heralds of new events, the inspirers of progress. A highly-educated man, though not a genius, in a way may occupy a similar place, and may repay by his influence many times, in practical ways, the expense of his education. Societies of laborers are already beginning to ascribe their troubles in part to lack of education, and are looking to education as a means of improving their condition. General education is practical education.

(b) While every boy should be taught to earn a living, this should not be done needlessly at the expense of the higher development of the faculties. Too much attention to the practical dwarfs the powers, limits the horizon, degrades the soul, and will result in the destruction of that spirit which makes a strong national character. There is little need to urge the practical; the more immediate and obvious motives constantly draw men toward it. The refinements of the soul are at first less inviting; they are hard to gain and easy to lose. Carlyle says: "By our skill in Mechanism, it has come to pass that, in the management of external things, we excel all other ages while in whatever respects the pure moral nature, in true dignity of soul and character, we are perhaps inferior to most civilized ages. . . . The infinite, absolute character of Virtue has passed into a finite, conditioned one; it is no longer a worship of the Beautiful and Good; but a calculation of the profitable. . . . Our true deity is Mechanism. It has subdued external nature for us, and, we think, it will do all other things." Carlyle possessed a true insight when he penned these words. The age is unpoetic. Science and devotion to the practical have left us without poetry. If science contains the potency of sentiment, it has not yet been evolved. Popular demands tend to make the age more unpoetic than it is. In this age the tourney has been converted into a fair; the vision of the poet is obscured by the smoke of factories; Apollo no longer leads the Immortal Nine upon Parnassus; and we would dethrone the gods from Olympus.

(c) We need the ideal. Let us not permit the mortal body to lord it too much over the immortal spirit. The ideal man is the purpose of education and the aim of existence, or life is not worth living. All material prosperity is naught except as contributing to that end. Sympathetic spirits are calling for more enlightenment and enjoyment and leisure for the laboring classes. They believe that men should be men as well as machines and that, if they are educated ideally, the practical will take care of itself. A lecturer of some note recently stated somewhat sarcastically that of all the Athenians who listened with rapt attention to the orations of Demosthenes, probably not one possessed a pin or a button for his cloak. In the matter of knowledge, emotion, will, manhood, or essential welfare, it would be a curious problem to weigh pins and buttons against a few orations like

those of Demosthenes. If we retain our belief in the high possibilities of the human soul, we shall have faith in ideal education and shall confidently offer every opportunity for the highest development possible of the child's power for knowledge, enjoyment, and action. And let his development be full and rounded. Let the roar of ocean and the sough of the pines make music for his ears as well as the whir of factories; let the starry heavens speak to his soul as vividly as the electric lamp to his eye. Let poetry awaken his imagination and ideal aspiration. Let us seek the True, the Beautiful, and the Good, and evolve from the material present ideals that shall stand in place of the vanished ones.

VIII. In view of the preceding discussion, I venture to state the following propositions:

1. The education of a human being should be in harmony with the higher possibilities of his nature.
2. Education is the development of the soul activities, Knowing, Feeling, and Willing; its aim is manhood.
3. This development, if possible, should be symmetrical, and should be carried to the highest point practicable.
4. The highest use of studies is to develop the mental powers. Education aims at more than knowledge.
5. General education is practical in that it may be applied in many ways.
6. The popular demands are really demands for special education before the mind is sufficiently developed.
7. The purely practical dwarfs the higher growth of man.
8. To cultivate the ideal is an essential part of education.

THE POPULAR VIEW; EDUCATION AS A PREPARATION TO EARN A LIVING.

R. K. BUEHRLE, LANCASTER, PENNSYLVANIA.

The prevailing educational views of a people are a product—mathematically speaking, a function—of its social condition. As this necessarily and constantly varies, so do those. The rise of new theories of education is therefore not surprising. That these should commend themselves to those educated under different circumstances and familiar with other systems is hardly to be expected; that there should be conflict is inevitable. Moreover, men in advanced life, naturally living largely in the past, are especially prone to entertain erroneous opinions in regard to the methods pursued by the educators who are preparing their children to meet the future. Again, *reasoning from past or present to future social conditions*

necessitates a very free use of the imagination, and this also is responsible for some of the most fantastic notions promulgated by educational reformers. Finally, the ancient feud between the wants of the soul and the demands of the body still exists, and as the contest becomes more and more intense now one and now the other predominates, and the popular idea of education takes shape accordingly. "Practical education," more definitely stated, "an education for a living," is the popular craze. Teach your sons and daughters what they are to do when they become men and women, is translated into "convert your schools into workshops and kitchens." For, although some of the less sanguine maintain that not the arts and the trades but mere muscular dexterity, is aimed at, and this only as a means of mental culture, yet the people, with truer insight, regard the movement as in the interest of bread-and-butter. But for this, would not be interested in it at all. This is evident from their comparative indifference to *Slojd*, (the Swedish form of manual training designed to promote mental culture through muscular dexterity,) as well as from the frequent allusions made by the advocates of industrial education to the pecuniary advantages accruing to those who attend these schools. The true tendency is clearly revealed in the last report of the Commissioner of Education, where we read that 7,800 students attend the agricultural colleges, 17,086 the scientific schools, 13,300 the industrial training schools, and 47,176 the business colleges of the land. As if conscious that these numbers do not sufficiently present the state of the case, the Commissioner adds: "The inference seems to be justified that the number of students pursuing the branches which were comprised in the old uniform college curriculum has relatively declined, but this loss is more than compensated by the attendance upon advanced scientific and special courses." "In the larger cities private individuals and associations are doing much to provide industrial training for the children who can only thus be kept from the ranks of the vagrant and the vicious." These numbers and these remarks afford a striking illustration of "the tendency of a prosperous democracy to overestimate material success and a corresponding indifference to the things of the mind." Hence the general demand for changes in the course of study in the public schools tending to the introduction of such branches as lead directly to money making. Hence the learned President of Harvard pleads before the assembled department of superintendence for more haste, for a shortening of the time to reach college. Hence the fewness of the students devoted to literature as such. Hence, too, the general turning away from the purely disciplinary and the moral subjects of study. Two thousand years ago Rome's greatest orator wrote: "Honor alit artes omnesque incenduntur ac studia gloria; jacent que ea semper, quæ apud quosque improbantur." Hence not Kant but Hæckel, not Guizot but Bert, not Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress but Henry George's Progress and Poverty, not the Iliad but the *Wealth of Nations*, not Demosthenes or Plato but A. T. Stewart or P. T.

Barnum, are studied and admired. The question of Kirchoff's banker, "Of what use is gold in the sun to me if I cannot go and get it?" is the way the whole American people put it to-day; and hence whittling schools, industrial schools, manual-training schools, sewing and cooking schools are monopolizing the attention of the people, forming the burden of pedagogical literature and the subjects of discussion at educational conventions.

The reasons for this popular view are not far to seek. Ours is a young nation, and it is characteristic of youth to exaggerate, to go to extremes, to endeavor only to acquire. Again, the nineteenth century is emphatically the era of physical investigation and material acquisitions. No previous age and no other country can show such advances in whatever contributes to man's physical comfort and intellectual enjoyment. Not the fountain of youth, but how more thoroughly to enjoy its pleasures; not the elixir of life, but whatever makes life worth living; not asceticism, but epicureanism, are sought after and adopted.

But more particularly:

1. The increase of knowledge has submitted to the human mind such a fascinating *physical* world for its conquest as to deprive the *moral* of all attraction.

The light streaming from the lamp of Phœbus has been so dazzling as to blind the scientist to that coming from the Sun of Righteousness. So much can now be learned of the *stars* of heaven as to leave no time to learn the way to heaven. So completely successful have the Titans been in their warfare with Jove that not only the thunderbolts descend harmlessly into the bosom of their mother earth, but the very lightnings run their errands, convey their messages, their slightest whispers, illumine their dwellings, and carry them and their all wherever the passengers list; so that

"With the thunder talked as friend to friend,
And wove his garland of the lightning's wing,"

ceases to be poetic and becomes strictly scientific language. So lavishly has Natural Science revealed her charms that the most ardent wooing of her seems amply justified. So rich have been her gifts to her admirers that her worship seems to them but reasonable gratitude. With such heavenly armor has she equipped her champions that conquest has become mere sport, and they have pressed forward into the very penetralia of creation.

2. This intimacy with Nature, this profound insight into her operations, naturally lessens man's contact with the spiritual.

He loses interest in religious dogmas and the miracles of the saints. One science after another has not only resolved into natural operations what seemed miraculous, but has tended to make him undervalue the ideal, the spiritual, the supernatural. The search for "the whence" has been so intense as to leave neither time nor thought for "the whither." Men have traced DESCENT with such ardor as to leave themselves no strength to project ASCENT.

3. Such, too, has been the constant demand upon the senses, that the other mental powers—the imagination and the reason—have been largely neglected; so much so, indeed, as to produce partial atrophy. Hence no great artist flourishes among us; we boast no “Laocoön;” our philosophy is an exotic, and our ethics is imported.

4. Add to these causes, that our very nature is to a large extent of the earth, earthy; that the demands of the body are loud and continuous, and hence prevalent; that in view of them even the divine law contents itself with one-seventh of the time for the satisfying of our spiritual wants; and how natural that Plato’s dictum, “Man’s study is to discover the right answer to the question ‘how to live,’” should be translated into “how to make a living”; and that men should mistake so large a part for the whole; that Goethe’s “Warum treibt sich das Volk so und schreit? Es will sich ernähren, Kinder zeugen, und sie nähren so gut es vermag. Weiter bringt es kein Mensch, stell’ er sich, wie er auch will,” should be accepted as a new evangel, the gospel of the Nineteenth Century.

5. Nor must it be forgotten that educational affairs are in the hands of the people, the masses, the very partially educated. These first of all must keenly feel the pressure to provide for their bodily wants. To many of them life is a constant struggle for existence. What more natural than to endeavor to lighten this struggle by preparing for it in school? What more grateful to them than that their children find the workshop in the school, whence they return with money instead of books? On the other hand, the mass of the people is incapable of feeling the higher spiritual wants, and of appreciating the utility or necessity of ministering to them. For, as the harmony of sweet sounds is best perceived by a cultured ear, even so the beauties and attractiveness of truth are most clearly perceived and most keenly felt by him whose soul is richest in it. Here, too, the law of gravitation applies.

6. Finally, the army of the unemployed, especially in the cities, where the cry of “an education for a living” is loudest—one rarely hears it in the rural districts—furnishes a constant force in the same direction.

That the masses should demand what they are pleased to call “a practical education”—“an education for a living”—need, therefore, surprise no one. But the expediency of granting the demand should be rigidly demonstrated before it be granted, and as it is the prerogative of civilized people to arrive at truth by the aid of reason, without relying wholly on the expensive method of experiment, it is proposed to point out the inexpediency of granting what the people ask—“an education for a living.”

I. Man’s bodily structure, the location and arrangement of the various portions of the brain according to their functions, proclaims the superiority of the spiritual over the physical, of the intellectual over the mechanical faculties. The limit of advantage from manual labor to intellectual culture is soon reached, and as the physical admits of no increase, while the

increase of the mental powers is virtually unlimited, the inexpediency of relying on advantages to intellectual development so limited in scope and application is evident. When we bear in mind that the most subtle thinkers are often gifted with the most stolid muscular structure and the worst physical constitutions, we may well call in question any great dependence of mental on bodily culture. No athlete has been famous as a superior mental or moral power, and no great intellect has ever attributed his preëminence to athletics. It was their open air, their street-life, their freedom, their contact with men, that developed the marvelous acuteness and subtlety of the Greek mind. When we remember that it was only after mathematics cast off the fetters imposed by geometrical form and adopted the method of algebraic analysis, that the greatest scientific applications could be made, we may well hesitate to depend for intellectual progress on muscular training. Indeed, but a very few years ago the question, "Is industrial instruction pedagogically necessary, is it superfluous, or is it actually injurious?" was raised and discussed in the synod of the canton of Zürich, the very cradle of industrial education. Nothing would seem to be more natural than that inventive genius should manifest itself as a result of manual training, and yet nothing is more certain than that ours has been the land of inventions and mechanical excellence, far outstripping those countries in which manual-training schools have long existed, thus showing mental activity as the source of muscular dexterity, and proving that what a boy learns depends at least as much on what he brings to the workshop as on what it offers him. If the foremost places in our machine shops are occupied by foreigners, this is due to the insane policy adopted by trades unions when they limited the number of apprentices, and thus prevented American youth, their own children, from learning the trades.

II. The possession of material wealth is inimical to creative ability in art or to moral power in life. Ray Lankester's assertion that "Any new set of conditions occurring to an animal which render its food and safety very easily attained, seem to lead, as a rule, to degeneration," holds good with man also. No wealthy nation, no wealthy portion of any nation, has ever displayed extraordinary moral virtue or creative ability. The history of the world furnishes ample proof of this assertion. The highest spiritual life has been developed amid privations and in the wilderness. Moses, Elijah, and John the Baptist in the religious, and Franklin and Lincoln in political life, are conspicuous examples of individuals so developed, while the mountain republics in all ages prove the truth among nations. On the other hand, warm climates, stimulating the bodily growth and hastening maturity, withdraw the vital energies from the mental activities, and the mind is stunted. Even Schopenhauer says: That a man may cultivate lofty ideas, and turn his thoughts from time to eternity, . . . that his better consciousness . . . may move within him, sorrow, suffering and distress are as *necessary to him as* . . . ballast to a ship.

III. But this cry for the practical in education is raised loudest by those who have no one to be educated, or who, having, are quite willing that the children of the poor should have the preference in this respect. The private institutions of learning in which the so-called higher classes of society are educated do not seem to be very anxious that their pupils shall enjoy the intellectual advantages said to arise from manual training. Neither Cornell nor Mt. Holyoke, where something of the kind was long since attempted, lay much stress on this feature as regards mind-culture. When carefully examined, it will appear that the movement is largely in the direction of keeping the poor in their sphere, as some please to term it, and of enabling children to become self-supporting very early in life. That such a tendency is downward, that the consequent result will not be what is expected—an intelligent body of workmen, but a degraded mass of operatives—needs no argument. The whole movement seems to be only another method of having the government assume charge of domestic affairs, and of narrowing parental responsibility. It is in the direction in which ancient Egypt, China and Peru have traveled—un-American, leading to caste and stagnation. It will first make the public school a school for the poor, and then inevitably a poor school. Says Charles Dudley Warner: “Unless the experience of the ages is misleading, the tendency of ‘the practical’ in all education is a downward and material one, and the highest civilization must continue to depend upon a pure scholarship and upon what are called abstract ideas. Even so practical a man as Socrates found the natural sciences inadequate to the inner needs of the soul.” “As to education generally, it may be said that while for the present the popular favor to the state university depends upon its being practical, . . . the time will come when it will be seen that the highest service it can render the state is by upholding pure scholarship without the least material object.”

IV. That man's happiness depends, not on the abundance of the things that he hath, but on what he is, has been recognized in all ages.

It was Schopenhauer who said: “The greatest possible enjoyment a man may have is the intuitive knowledge of truth.” It was Carlyle who asked: “Could you banish yourself from all that is interesting to your mind; forget the history, the glorious institutions, the noble principles of old Scotland, that you may eat a better dinner, perhaps?”

From the very throne of the late Emperor of Germany comes the admonition: “Only a generation growing up upon a sound basis, in the fear of God and in simplicity of morals, can overcome dangers which in times of rapid economical movement arise for the entire community, through examples set by highly-luxurious individuals. We must be careful that through one-sided efforts for increased knowledge the work of education be not neglected.”

It was the enemy of mankind who said: “Command that these stones be

made bread;" and the answer of Him who is the truth was, "Man does not live by bread alone."

V. Man's education should lead, not only to creation, but also to preservation. The ruins of past ages bury many a noble creation worthy of perennial existence. This very destruction of the good proves the defectiveness of the civilizations. The accumulation of the products of industry, of wealth, of works of beauty and art, is but the supplying of fuel to the political incendiaries of the future. It is a good only provided the incendiaries do not exist. There are no anarchists in Iceland, and to the patriarchs of Lapland the dynamiter is unknown. The Alpine shepherds do not organize the commune, and Arcadia was not disturbed by socialistic riots. But when enormous wealth lies alluringly before beings in human form, with human passions not controlled by equally exalted intellectual and moral powers, riot, destruction and death inevitably appear. The immediate danger to our country is, not that the people may not be able to make a living—no country ever fell because of a want of productive capacity in its people—but that their moral and intellectual culture may be so neglected that they may choose the wrong method or the wrong object of life. The tramp's assertion, that the world owes him a living, is not true. The mendicant, the worthless, the thriftless, and the consequently workless, the anarchist as well as the socialist, prove that there is a lack, not of industrial but of moral education. They manage to make a living, but they do not know how to live. The employment of powerful natural agents—Titanic forces—has a tendency to cause man to refuse to exert his muscular strength; to pride himself, not on what he is, or can do, but on what he can compel others to do for him. Hence, the true practical education to be given by the state must make preëminently for morality. It must prevent injustice, which invariably brings popular frenzy in its train. For the language of the human heart has ever been —

"Flectere si nequeo superos
Acheronta movebo."

VI. The great problems still remaining and now pressing for solution are social and moral. Increasing the number of business colleges will hardly tend to lessen the number of emigrants to Canada; the ability to run a lathe or to invent an improved reaper will hardly decrease the number of divorces; additional cotton and woolen mills will not sanctify the marriage relation; new beverages chemically compounded will not purify amusements; and easy transportation transports away from rather than towards the observance of the Sabbath; for the Sunday trains are not run to the temples, but to the groves and the high places; and while the prophet is in the holy place with his God, the people sit down to eat and drink and rise up to play.

The constantly increasing abhorrence of war and the consequent reduction of the agencies of destruction, as well as the almost infinite augmentation of

the productive energies, due to invention and science, render new fields of employment necessary.

A New York elevated railroad advertised for thirty engineers one day last week; the applicants numbered over five hundred. It also asked for thirty firemen; one thousand responded to the call. It needed three hundred other men, such as conductors, gatemen, and other grades; for a period of ten days the office of the company was besieged by applicants. All this demonstrates that production to-day exceeds consumption, and that merely increasing the productive capacity of the people will only aggravate the evil. The task set before us is first of all to so educate the public that they may have higher wants, the supplying of which will call into requisition higher kinds of activity requiring more time for preparation. With the reduction in the hours of labor must come an increase in æsthetic culture demanding products in art and literature more elaborate and beautiful. Not Vulcan nor Ceres but Apollo must be the chosen standard-bearer, and the muses must be invoked to charm away and lighten the evils unavoidable in life. The alternative is before us: either riotous living and consequent destructive warfare, or the demand for and the creation of lasting forms of beauty.

VII. But that which more especially constitutes the essential work of the public schools is political education. Time was when such a statement would have aroused fierce opposition; when the charge that the schools are educating for political life would have been indignantly denied. But the day has arrived when the necessity of educating for citizenship is generally recognized. The people are beginning to realize as never before that they have assumed the solution of the grandest political problem ever attempted, and that to solve it successfully is not within the capacity of ordinary men, or an ordinary population. They have already found it necessary to exclude "the celestials," and are now gravely considering the propriety of erecting barriers to exclude at least some of the European nations. The American eagle can no longer sport the plumes inscribed "An asylum for the oppressed and the down-trodden of all nations."

Another portion of our people, whether justly or unjustly, complain that freedom of religion is denied them, and no great amount of foresight is required to see that other very great social questions are rapidly presenting themselves and will soon demand solution.

The first among these is *the distribution of capital*. Colossal fortunes by the side of hopeless and terrible poverty, is evidence of blundering not in production but in distribution, in education, and consequently in government and religion. This state of things has brought ruin to every country, and the escape of ours from a like fate can be secured only by superior political virtue among the people, which will enable them to answer, in a more satisfactory manner, the question "Am I my brother's keeper?" Neither scientific nor the so-called practical education will avail here. "No observation of nature teaches ethical truths," and the doctrine of "the survival

of the fittest" instead of tending to aid, suggests rather the destruction of the weak and the dependent, the despising of charity and the worship of force. The problem definitely placed before the American people is how to prevent the accumulation of capital in the hands of the few to such an extent as to endanger the public welfare by its consequent power, and render the many less and less capable of helping themselves by legal means; thus obliging them to meet power represented by dollars with that represented by muscle. "The king that faithfully judgeth the poor, his throne shall be established forever," is no less true when the king is the whole people. Anarchism is but an expression of despair of obtaining substantial justice under the form of law. To prevent such a catastrophe, especially in a free country, the many must be politically educated so as to apply and endure restrictive measures not thought of by the fathers. The heathenish doctrine, "Every man for himself," must be replaced by that nobler Christian saying, "Bear ye one another's burdens"—every one for all. The church may teach that this be done from love of God; the school must demonstrate its scientific and hence political necessity.

A people so educated will abolish *monopoly*, or rather never allow it to come into existence, as being of the very essence of selfishness. They will oppose to the almost unlimited increase of wealth and consequent power made possible by modern science, the absolutely unlimited increase in political wisdom and virtue.

But the society of the future, because of its compactness and consequent solidarity, will offer new problems to those who desire to conserve *political freedom*. Modern means of transportation and communication render city life the rule and country life the exception. How greatly this endangers political freedom is readily seen. Logically, therefore, training for citizenship a population capable not only to legislate but to obey its own legislation, affords the only legitimate remedy. Muscular strength, and even religious subordination, as consonant with despotism as with freedom, will not suffice.

And this close contact of man with man, this intimate association, endangers *personal liberty*. Thence arise questions as to the natural rights and their enjoyment; as to interference with the individual for the good of the community; as to religious liberty, Sunday legislation, prohibition, the hours and the rewards of labor, and strikes.

Manual-training schools and industrial education afford no remedy here, throw no light upon these questions. Their successful solution is possible only to a people so educated that not only the most insignificant movements to which the events of daily life prompt them, but also their entire moral bearing, appear as the spontaneous expression of a beautiful nature, without serious premeditation, and therefore, also, without any remembrance of the possibility of its being otherwise. Such an education the historical sciences

alone are competent to afford. They alone inspire the necessary patriotism and diffuse the required knowledge. Only the hearts that have trembled and vibrated with the noblest thoughts of the past are capable of cherishing the most glorious hopes of the future.

WHERE SHOULD GENERAL EDUCATION END AND SPECIAL EDUCATION BEGIN?

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This subject is twenty-eight hundred miles long, sixteen hundred miles wide, is composed of thirty-eight States, eight Territories excluding Alaska, the District of Columbia, and the Indian Territory. Its superficial area is two million nine hundred thousand one hundred and seven square miles. It includes sixty millions of people.

Before attempting to decide where general education should end and special education begin, we should inquire upon what the obligation of the state to educate rests, and the extent of that obligation. The following definitions appear applicable in this connection: "The entire body of people living together in a condition of mutual dependence for protection and liberty are the state."—*Winslow*. Or, "A state is a community of persons living within certain limits of territory, under a permanent organization which aims to secure the prevalence of justice by self-imposed laws."—*Woolsey*.

The American theory is this: That the state should foster education, and that every opportunity should be furnished to every child to secure a good common-school education; and, furthermore, that such higher institutions of learning should be established and maintained as the welfare of the state and the nation requires. What particular kind of instruction, and how much of it, the state should furnish to all the people, is a question upon which there are wide differences of opinion. Our country is so vast, and so unbounded in its resources, that it is necessary to take a general survey of the occupations in which our people are at present engaged before dogmatically asserting what should or should not be done in regard to education. Our system of government is so different in many respects from that of other nations that it is not safe to reason from analogy. It is a surprise to intelligent foreigners to observe our complicated, (as it appears to them,) system of local self-government. We have no national system of education, and under our form of government it would be impossible to have such a *system*. Our general government has not seen fit, at any time, to assume to

educate the people of any particular locality. Education is a State affair, and it is left to the States themselves. The States prescribe in general terms what the course of instruction must be, while the county, the town, the township or the school district gives practical effect to the law. Hence the people at their homes shape education. Education with us is an internal growth. It has been left to the people themselves to develop a system commensurate with their wants, and the best for the welfare of the Republic. It would be an act of recklessness for a person familiar with only one section of our country and its wants, to prescribe a course of instruction for all the schools of the entire country. The wants of New England are so different from those of Texas, or Illinois, that comparisons and similarities are practically useless. A school for the training of sailors would be as much out of place in the State of Iowa as one in Rhode Island for teaching the children there how to tame buffalo, or to capture wild antelope.

The statistics of 1880 give us an enlarged view of our country, if we will interpret some of them in connection with the occupations of the people. To understand our wants we must know what we are, and what we expect to be in the future. Not that the future can be fully conceived; but some inadequate idea, at least, may be formed, which will guide us partially in planning for those who will come after us.

According to the census of 1880, the farm area in the United States was eight hundred and thirty thousand six hundred and twenty-eight square miles, or twenty-eight and two-tenths per cent. of the total area not including Alaska; and the improved land in farms was four hundred and forty thousand nine hundred and fifty-five square miles, or fifteen per cent. only of the superficial area of the country. The total area in farms was five hundred and thirty-six million eighty-one thousand eight hundred and thirty-five acres, and the number of acres improved two hundred and eighty-four million seven hundred and seventy-one thousand and forty-two, and the number of farms four million eight thousand nine hundred and seven. The increase in improved land during the last decade was thirty-one per cent., while the increase in population throughout the entire country was thirty and one-tenth per cent.

Agriculture is the most important industry of this country, and the United States produces, according to Mulhall, thirty per cent. of the grain of the world. The capital employed in farms and farming implements in this country, eight years ago, amounted to ten billion six hundred and three million six hundred and sixteen thousand eight hundred and thirty-one dollars, and the total value of live stock on farms, (excluding ranch stock,) one billion five hundred million four hundred and sixty-four thousand six hundred and nine, making a grand total of twelve billion one hundred and four million eighty-five thousand four hundred and forty-one; while that invested in manufactures, the next largest industry, was two billion seven hundred and ninety million two hundred and seventy thousand six

hundred and six dollars. Mulhall in his *Progress of Nations* gives the following statistics in regard to the grain products of the world:

	<i>Acres in grain.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>
United States.....	118,000,000	2,698,000,000
Russia.....	158,000,000	1,585,000,000
Germany.....	48,000,000	990,000,000
France.....	40,000,000	840,000,000
Austro-Hungary.....	35,000,000	520,000,000
United Kingdom.....	12,500,000	455,000,000
Spain.....	15,000,000	300,000,000
Italy.....	18,000,000	270,000,000
Canada and Australia.....	14,000,000	140,000,000

The persons who are reported as engaged in gainful and respectable occupations, according to the census of 1880, number seventeen million three hundred and ninety-two thousand and ninety-nine, or nearly thirty-five per cent. of the entire population, of whom two million six hundred and forty-seven thousand one hundred and fifty-seven are females. Of the total number thus employed, seven million six hundred and seventy thousand four hundred and ninety-three, or forty-four per cent., were engaged in agriculture; four million six hundred and seventy thousand two hundred and thirty-eight, or twenty-three per cent., in professional and similar services; one million eight hundred and ten thousand two hundred and six, or eleven per cent., in trades and transportation; three million eight hundred and thirty-seven thousand one hundred and twelve, or twenty-two per cent., in manufacturing. Of the total persons thus engaged, eighty per cent. were native-born. There were also reported, two hundred and fifty-three thousand eight hundred and fifty-two manufacturing establishments, which employed two million seven hundred and thirty-two thousand seven hundred and ninety-five hands; and the value of manufactured material that year was three billion three hundred and ninety-six million eight hundred and twenty-three thousand five hundred and forty-nine dollars.

Dividing the States into groups, in the North-Atlantic division twenty-eight and nine-tenths per cent. of the whole population are engaged in manufacturing; in the South-Atlantic division, fifteen per cent.; in the North-Central group, thirty-four and six-tenths per cent.; in the South-Central group, seventeen and eight-tenths per cent.; and in the West-Central group, three and five-tenths per cent.

Again, the urban population was eleven million three hundred and eighteen thousand five hundred and forty-seven, or twenty-two and one-half per cent. of the entire population. In the North-Atlantic group the urban population is forty-eight per cent. of the entire population; in the South-Atlantic, fourteen per cent.; in the North Central, twenty-one per cent.; in the South-Central, nine per cent.; in the Western group, twenty-seven per cent. A still greater percentage will be reported in 1890.

Turning to the Report of the Commissioner of Education, for 1886: The

total number of pupils enrolled in the public schools is given as eleven million four hundred and thirty-five thousand two hundred and ninety-seven; and of this number, enrolled in the schools of cities having a population of five thousand and over, there were two million one hundred and eighty-five thousand four hundred and eighteen pupils. The last annual report of the State of Missouri shows that four hundred and eighty thousand two hundred and forty-three pupils were enrolled in the country schools, and one hundred and thirty-five thousand one hundred and ten pupils enrolled in the city, town, and village schools; the total school population being eight hundred and thirty-eight thousand eight hundred and twelve. This may be taken as a fair ratio throughout the West of the children in the graded and the ungraded schools, and it varies only slightly from that given throughout the country.

These facts indicate such a diversity of interests that it appears well-nigh impossible to arrange a course of instruction under national control, or even such uniformity throughout the State systems, as would be applicable to the wants of each locality. Diversity of interests creates differentiations in the systems we now have, and these differences tend to increase rather than to diminish.

THE GRANARY OF THE WORLD.

It is evident to the statistician that the United States is destined to be the granary of the world. Its natural resources are cast in gigantic moulds. While the valley of the Amazon is very much greater than that of the Mississippi, there is little variation in the productions of that vast level region. From the mouth of the Mississippi, however, to its source a greater variety of productions is found than upon any other river. Within this valley crops of corn and wheat in such profusion are produced as nowhere else in the world. Notwithstanding wheat is grown in nearly all civilized countries, the principal wheat-producing countries are the United States, Russia, Great Britain, France, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Turkey, British India, and New Zealand. Only a few years ago Southern Russia supplied the deficit of the crops in Europe, and now a failure of the crops there is supplied from the surplus of the United States. Extra breadstuffs for other nations must be produced on this continent.

The wheat-growing area of British India does not exceed one hundred and ten thousand square miles. Great Britain, another great wheat-producing country, has an area slightly less than that of Missouri and Arkansas, while France is only a little larger than Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, and half of Arkansas. Austro-Hungary has an area equal to these four states, while Prussia is very nearly the size of Missouri and Illinois. These facts of themselves indicate somewhat the food supply of the world, and in what pursuits our people must be chiefly engaged. While we can manufacture many articles for home consumption much more cheaply than they can be imported, and we *may also compete with other nations in the markets of the*

world, nevertheless, our advantage is in exporting grains, beef, pork, and agricultural implements.

No remote idea of the vast possibilities of the natural resources of the states lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Appalachian system, and extending down to the Gulf of Mexico, and of the Pacific states on the west, can be conveyed to any one not familiar with this vast area. We have vast undeveloped industries in the west and south, and along the shores of the Pacific. Through our country is the direct highway from Europe to Eastern Asia and Australia. The trade of the Central-American and South-American states belongs of right to the American people. The inhabitants of Brazil and the Argentine Confederation are nearer to New Orleans, Charleston, and New York and Boston, than they are to Liverpool, London, or any of the continental seaports. The trade along the west coast of South America ought to be controlled by California, Oregon, and Washington Territory. To reach the millions in Asia, the great highway of the world will be across this continent instead of through the Isthmus of Suez. Our country can support a population of eight hundred millions and not be crowded, and they can feed and clothe themselves better than is possible in any European or Asiatic country.

The policy of our government has been that of peace with all nations. Our success must depend on our domestic peace and prosperity, and the development of our natural resources so as to compete successfully in all the markets of the world.

With this inadequate view of our real position among the nations of the earth, the question very naturally arises, as to what should be the system of education for the people of this country in order to accomplish results that have been thus faintly outlined. It is evident that if we occupied a very limited area, densely populated, or a region of country with an infertile soil, we would have to depend largely upon manufactures, and that our scheme of instruction, judged from a pecuniary point of view, would point to the factory and to the workshop. While there will continue to be a constant increase in population in the large commercial centers, nevertheless the life-blood of the cities must be drawn chiefly from the rural population.

There is a place in our system of education for the special or technical school for teaching trades. It springs from a demand in large manufacturing communities. It is a local demand, and should be fostered by local enterprise. There is more need in a country like ours for agricultural schools than for technical schools; at the present time I see no reason why schools in which trades are taught should be shouldered by the state.

STATE HELP OR SELF-HELP.

This question in its direct as well as in its remote influences is one of the *most important* that can come before the American people—state help as

opposed to self-help. Two theories are held, antagonistic in their tendencies as well as in their effects. If a man can't get along by himself, then the state must interfere and legislate for him. If a boy is to learn a trade, the state is to furnish the tools, workshop, and material. He belongs to the state; and the state belongs to him, in so far as it shall supply him with food, shelter, clothing, education, and occupation. This is social as well as political equality. Since the state must not discriminate, it must do for all what it would do for the one. In its justice it must give each one the same opportunity, and it assumes that each one has the same talent for learning any trade, science, art, or handicraft. The assumption is that of political, intellectual and industrial equality among all classes. As a matter of fact, men may be equal before the law, but industrially and intellectually there are the very widest differences. The theory that the individual must rely upon the state for help, is antagonistic to the free activity of a nation. That body of people is the strongest and happiest, the most self-reliant and progressive, in which each one thinks for himself, is independent, self-controlled, and self-mastered. It is pertinent to ask, also, whether the state may not do too much for the individual. It seems to be a law of our nature, as well as in accord with the spirit of American institutions, that he who does a thing for himself values it infinitely more than if it is done for him by another. A man who carves out his own pathway in life gains power by the very act. He becomes sagacious, foresighted, self-reliant, and ready for further advances. He learns to depend upon himself. He knows how to exert all his faculties and to bend all his energies in accomplishing the object he has in view. Such self-reliance gives stability of character and firmness of purpose; it stimulates the inventive faculties, and gives man power over himself as well as over others. Self-help and self-dependence lead to activity in production and healthy exertion. State help weakens individual energy, and teaches one to depend upon outside power. It takes away the motive for self-exertion, and leaves the individual listless, inactive, and dependent.

THE STATE SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS.

The State System of Education includes the elementary school, the high school, the school of mines, the agricultural college, and the state university. Or they may be classified thus: *The Elementary School; the Preparatory School; the Special School; the University.* The common school gives elementary instruction; the high school is a preparatory school, and takes the place of the old academy; the normal school, the school of mines, and the agricultural college are special seminaries, while the university crowns the system. The common schools are intended for all classes of the people. In them the masses must be educated. The aim and object of the high schools seem to be well understood. They are intended to carry forward the elementary work of the common schools into a better and higher form of discipline, a broader impartation of knowledge, and a more thorough

preparation for intelligent labor and useful citizenship. These schools are designed as proper and necessary nurseries for scholars of higher aim, and who are preparing to attend the university; also, for those who do not expect to continue their studies in a higher institution of learning, but would lay such a foundation here for sound scholarship as would enable them to prosecute their studies privately.

The principle upon which the normal school is supported is that of supplying the common and high schools with skilled teachers properly qualified to instruct. The state should have the very best teachers for the schools; and that the instruction should be of the very highest order, it has been found necessary to establish and maintain normal training schools. For similar reasons, but having different objects in view, agricultural colleges and mining schools are made a part of the state system. As a part of the system, the university should have its place, and its work. It should receive no students except those who—having grasped the purpose of a higher culture—have fitted themselves by a preparatory drill to enter gradually upon independent work; and facilities should be furnished at the university to satisfy the needs and the wishes of those students who are really becoming scholars. It should offer aid and encouragement in every direction, and all the work there performed, either by professors or students, should be of the very highest character. In order to accomplish this, its purpose, the university should possess ample facilities for scientific and literary work, as well as for scholarly research and scientific investigation. While the professors might do very little to direct the students, yet they should do a great deal for science. The university, then, will have something more than active facilities for study—it will be the center of earnest scientific and literary influences. It is in this direction that the influence of the university is most widely felt. With professors who can give a portion of their time to original investigation and the development of higher culture, the available resources of the state should be centered at this point for the benefit of the scholars of the state.

The university, then, should be an institution at which a young man or a young woman may study as high and as widely as possible. Subjects here should be thoroughly and exhaustively handled. There should be rich and constantly growing collections from all departments of scientific research. Independent and original scholarship should be encouraged and stimulated in every direction. Here, too, should be collected a great library which would be the resort of scholars who would use the works for purposes of independent study. These are parts of such an institution and the necessary outgrowth of university life. In this way persons having a desire as well as a disposition to do earnest work may become great public benefactors. The professors should feel that their general work for science and learning is recognized by those who control the university.

THE DEPARTURE.

The growth of this country has been so sudden and great, and so many persons have come to us from other countries, that we have in a manner lost sight of the state systems of schools that were originally intended for our people. Growing out of the differentiations of pursuits and the various forms of industry that have sprung so suddenly into existence, there is a clash in our notions of what a school should teach, and what should be offered to all the people at public expense. Many wise and conscientious people believe that the state should do no more than teach what are called the common branches. They claim that all education above that is not in accordance with the spirit of our institutions, because it would mean class legislation, or the furnishing of an education which all cannot enjoy. The theory upon which they base their objection is that we help some at the expense of all, and that instead of this injustice, the schools should be kept down to the common branches.

There are others, however, who take a different view altogether. They claim that the school is a kind of bee-hive, in which not only the common branches are taught, but that the trades and many kinds of industry should form a part of the course of instruction; that the state should not only undertake to educate in the sciences and arts, but also to teach the boys all mechanic arts and the girls all domestic duties. If the state should undertake education in this broad sense, the question might well be asked, Where must the line be drawn? If cooking and housekeeping are to be taught, how do we know that the professor of domestic economy can bake better bread than the mothers at home? How do we know that the mothers are not as well qualified themselves as these "new professors of things"? Again, if the state must teach the boys trades, must it not teach all the boys? Is there a good reason that it should teach a trade to one class and exclude others? If the state undertakes to educate, no partiality must be shown. If this be true, then, may we not stop and inquire how manual training can be incorporated with our present somewhat overburdened system of instruction without being detrimental to the best interests of the schools? If manual training as a part of the public-school system can be defended at all, it must be upon the hypothesis that the child shall work each day so many hours, in order to give him proper zest for intellectual effort. The assumption that manual training must become a part of the public-school system, and give a general culture in shaping wood, iron, steel and brass into manufactured articles without teaching a trade, appears to me to rest upon an indefensible basis. If manual training can be defended, it must be upon the hypothesis that the child can make more rapid progress in his studies when he gives less time to these studies and more to physical exercise under the control of his will. Upon the other hand, in one sense we must regard the child as well as the man as a machine capable of doing so much work. *Beyond a certain limit it is neither safe nor satisfactory to push and crowd*

this machine. A certain amount of work can be done, and if there be a still heavier drain upon the system, it is done at the expense of the vital energy of the individual. From a physiological standpoint, the child requires physical and mental exercise, recreation, and sleep. It is a serious question whether a child can be taken from his regular study-work each day and put into the workshop, without a considerable loss of vital force. If the trades must be taught—and this is the logical outcome of hitching manual training to the public schools—no dead-line can be drawn consistently at which the state can say, "Thus far, and no farther."

So far, nothing has been said of the tax-paying power of a community, which cuts no inconsiderable figure in the discussion of this topic. As an individual, I have serious doubts as to the propriety of enlarging the course of study in our city schools. There is a dissipation of energy already, in having the children pursue so many different subjects in the graded schools. In my opinion, it is a mistake to teach cumbersome systems of drawing and music in our public schools. We need to cut down and cut out, rather than to enlarge upon what we have.

The expense of our public schools is heavy, and that expense can be defended only upon the basic fact of intelligent citizenship, which is a protection to life and property. That all persons should have an education in a country like ours, is admitted. In no other country is there the same deference paid to law and order as in the United States. The acquiescence of the minority in the peaceably expressed will of the majority is a peculiar and striking example of the deep hold the principles of self-government have upon the minds and hearts of nearly all our people. While the body politic is in the main sound and healthy, yet there are indications of organic degeneration. There is now a congested population in the large cities which is a continual menace to good government. To eliminate this element by education is our first and most solemn duty. To change this army of consumers into producers, instead of agitators and emissaries, is the social and political problem of the age. We must face it squarely, firmly, charitably, and successfully. Its solution may require an entire change of base in our methods of dispensing charity; if so, let it be. Healthy action must be restored, and that speedily.

In answer to those who contend that the state should give only a common-school education, I reply that when knowledge is acquired by a person, it is not his in the sense of exclusion, or in the same sense that it is when he acquires property. Knowledge can never be held by an individual as special property. Knowledge is communicated from mind to mind; neither can it be shut up so as not to be felt. In this sense, education is never partial work in the sense of belonging to the individual. From this, it is evident that the true way to lift up a people is not to give them the same instruction after the common branches are mastered. Yet the state as far as it goes, *should give all the same chance*. Owing to differences in taste, capacities,

and inclinations, selections must be made, and certain directions or inclinations of mind followed. Specialized work is the fruitful source of new discoveries, and of branches followed up and mastered. Each person shows some capacity for a certain kind of knowledge. There are those who derive knowledge from books; others again from shops or the manufactory. There are men of business, of commerce, agriculture, etc., and in the communities in which they live, the whole people seem to be permeated with this special influence. While men may not impart to others the exact secret of their success, yet the results of their work are observed and appropriated. From this, I infer that all grades of schools are imbued with certain influences under our form of government; in fact, we may say that our government itself is a widespread system of education. Men, here, start from the humblest positions of society. They learn their duties and then follow the bent of their inclinations. The impetus given to them under the stimulus of our system develops the talents they possess. This free field for the exercise of talent in any direction, is the reason why we are the most progressive nation on the face of the earth. But if the state must interfere and teach everything and provide everything, the idea becomes widespread that the state owes everything to the individual and the individual nothing to the state, a result most disastrous to the people themselves. It would be nothing less than the entire subversion of our political system and the death-knell of civil liberty in this country.

In this country alone are there real opportunities for the poor to rise. The poor boys are the ones who have a bright future before them. With the common education they receive and the higher education within reach if they wish to possess it, their faculties are stimulated, and their inventive powers quickened; and working under these influences, they push far ahead of the children of wealth and indolence. Instead, then, of the state's assuming additional obligations, it is the part of wisdom to continue the policy of the past. James Russell Lowell warns us against "that system of grandmotherly government which is the most hostile to the genius of our institutions, and which soonest saps the energies and corrodes the morals of a people." The idea of going to the state for everything is wrong in principle. A republican form of government must make the people self-sustaining and self-supporting. Intelligence must depend upon the virtue and prosperity of the society as demanded by the highly educated. The interest of the individual as well as that of the commonwealth is best promoted when schools of the highest order are demanded and maintained. The nature of our government demands a highly-educated class, because it is with this class that we are enabled to carry on and push forward those influences which ennoble, elevate and refine the people. Permanent growth of character, or a deep-seated love of institutions, must originate within and be developed outward. The desires of the individual are the causes of success, and not the extraneous influences from without, enforced by the state.

Just as too much help by the parent or teacher enfeebles the child, so will it be under state assistance. The individual should do the greatest amount possible, and the state the least. To give opportunities is the duty of the state, and to take advantage of them is the chance of the citizen. The state owes the individual nothing till the individual returns more to the state than he has received from it. The state is an evil to be tolerated, because of the selfishness and the indolence of men. It is an instrument chiefly of repression and limitation. Nearly all its functions are negative. The individual is the positive factor in the composition of the state.

The support given to the high school, the normal school, and the state university, can be defended only upon the hypothesis that they influence and elevate the quality of the instruction in the common schools. The school system is an agency for the uplifting of the masses in all those practical virtues which constitute good citizenship. If the state decides to establish technical schools, such as normal schools, agricultural colleges, schools of mines, the right exists. But to unite a plowing school with every country school, and work-shops and cook-shops with all town and city schools, would be an act of folly that no sane man would attempt, unless it should be some egoistic school-master. That children should be taught to work, and to earn a living, is a proposition so reasonable that none will stop to controvert it; but the true policy is to teach this at home, or in the work-shops, where it properly belongs. The danger to the public schools now is from their over-zealous, and over-crowding, and over-anxious friends. Zeal without knowledge is a dangerous missile. The rebound is something fearful to contemplate among a throng of educators.

My confidence is strong in those who believe in themselves. The state cannot make the people; the people make the state, and dictate its policy. Too much state help is self-degradation of the individual. The state motive must be removed—rooted out—by substituting the individual motive for it. The whole theory of education consists in putting a higher motive for a lower one. This truth is elemental.

DISCUSSION.*

MISS JOSEPHINE LOCKE, OF ST. LOUIS: I am certainly very glad to be given this opportunity to speak in the interest of the children from six to fourteen. I believe we are all seeking for the light, and I also believe that it is only when we put all the light together that we get into the full play of the sunshine.

This subject of manual training is very close to my heart, because I feel

**Stenographer's report.*

that the interests of the children are very seriously at stake. Manual training has come to stay. I am sorry to see that we are dealing with it so much as a generality; but manual training is here, and there is no dodging it.

As to the first gentleman's paper, I would like to give some thoughts concerning it. Is the only end of manual training found in the production of an article of utility? Is that the sum-total of manual training—increasing the usefulness of the raw material, the development of mere hewers of wood and drawers of water? No. We have had enough of this idea. May not manual training also minister to spiritual and intellectual development? Has it not done so in the past, and is it not doing so now? It has.

Felix Adler claims for his New York school its value solely as a moral agent. The Hebrew people from time immemorial have taught their children trades, and I question very much if their great leader, Moses, did not have a course in manual training. So the Hebrew minds all the way down were entitled to and received manual training, every one of them, even to our Blessed Master who gave himself for us, and who gave us his example in fourteen years at the carpenter's bench.

Greek culture and Roman culture differ entirely from our American civilization. We are the first nation of freemen. We are the first people who delight in serving as well as being served. Roman and Greek civilization did not encourage manual training. Plato said the useful arts were degrading. No wonder that Socrates, wise as he was, yet in many of his family relations was brutal. With all of Greek and Roman culture went the element of human slavery. It remains for us as Americans to lift manual training from this slave condition, and make it the object of sober, intelligent thought.

The sovereigns of Europe, and heirs to the throne in the most progressive countries, must pass through an initiation into the several occupations of the people. Some of the sovereigns of Europe have insisted upon young men learning a trade, that this manual training might become their recreation. We need a race of people whose words shall be paralleled by their deeds. Mere training in words and literature will not secure this good. Our object is not the growing of giants, but the raising of the general level of intelligence, if it be only the fraction of an inch. We want to raise the great mass of our citizens in the intellectual standard, and keep at work until the day of universal intelligence has come.

Another thought. No one appreciates more than I do the incubus in the raw material which is upon us. No one appreciates more than I do the overplus of production that is found here. What shall we do with this overplus which is crowding us? Manual training brings us this skeleton—now understand me, I use the words "manual training" as the only ones I have—this skeleton: more production. Simple production does not minister to the development of character. It is its moral quality that we are after, and if we carry along *the moral excellence* we will enhance the value of every-

thing we do. By teaching our children obedience, and acquaintance with the universal laws of bodies and of truth which are to be found in forms, we instill great and useful principles more important than are to be found in the thoughts of Plato. As a result of this training, we are better able to appreciate and understand, and receive improvement, from the great literary works which will round out our tastes.

I quite agree with the thought that not an increase of production is needed, but rather an enrichment and enhancement of the raw material already here, by allowing the trained thought and imaginations, and the skilled hand of the human mind, to work upon it. Who can calculate the benefit which has come to the world through the labor of Bessemer, and Stevenson, and Davy?

Again, will reading, writing and arithmetic develop the whole man? Are we whole men and women? Have you reached your full stature? Have I? Is there nothing beyond this? Surely they are not the only educators for us, and our children. They have never developed well-rounded men and women. Reading, writing and arithmetic are one-sided, and leave out one entire side of the child's nature—the training of the perceptive faculties. We must have manual training for our children from six to fourteen if they are going to be fitted to become strong men and women. I remember Sir Samuel Smith's report to the last Parliament; and what was it? Why, that the children needed industrial training. I see that the men at the head of the public schools in England recommend the devotion of five hours a week to this important branch. Within the last two years Mr. Spencer has recommended this, and Professor Huxley, and many others whose names I do not now remember. They are all deeply interested in the subject of industrial education. And I am happy to see that Oxford and Cambridge and Glasgow can no longer be still.

I plead for general intelligence for our people, through the great cause of education. We cannot keep this training from our young people under twelve years of age. Some of the nations of Europe are wiser than we. They are giving it full encouragement.

I think our observation and experience teach us that this is an element of education of vast importance, and we cannot afford to overlook the many good results which flow from a proper system of manual training for the young people of our land.

MR. THOMPSON, OF INDIANA: I have listened to papers on practical education, on manual training, from the platform of the National Teachers' Association, for ten years or more; and the contest between the two sides of this question reminds me very much of the old contest between the idealists and the realists—between the thinkers and the doers. It reminds me of the two persons who looked upon the same shield. One looked upon the silver side and it was silver; the other looked upon the gold side and it was

gold. Each declared the shield was made of the metal which he saw, whereas it was made of both gold and silver.

It seems to me in this matter both sides are right in one sense, and that every subject may be approached from one of two sides. That which is necessary to be known, in order that we may do a thing, is the science of it. That which is necessary to do in order that we may know, is the art side, and we know both sides and we may approach from either side.

If we are teaching young persons, we may approach the subject from the seeing side and then we must pass over from that into the science of doing, following principles. If we are teaching older persons, we may approach that subject from the scientific side, and we may understand its underlying principles; but if we stop with that we stop too soon. We should pass from the science of the subject into some form of expression.

Manual training and practical education and all that, is nothing more than a form of expressing one's thoughts, feelings, and desires. We have various methods of expressing thoughts. We may divide them, in a general way, into two classes. One is the method of expression flowing to the ear through sound, and through this method we have various kinds of things, influences upon the mind, music, etc.

On the other side we have a method of expressing knowledge, which is an appeal to the eye. From this side, of course, we have various kinds of art: we have manufactures, we have buildings, we have sculpture, we have painting, etc.

It seems to me it is well enough to teach in the schools the science of what people are to practice when they go out into life. I think we can profitably teach modeling to represent sculpture and all kinds of manufactures. This may be used as a type. When the child is taught modeling, he is doing something which has an underlying principle. You may find a place for all of these forms of expression in after life.

I simply wish to say this, that we all recognize the method of expression by means of language—that which appeals to the ear; but perhaps we have neglected the other kind of expression, that of the hand. I think likely we have neglected this, and I think it would be well for us as teachers to emphasize this a little more in the future. It is impossible that the form of expression through the hand, of an appeal to the eye, shall ever take the place of the other. There are certain thoughts that require certain means of expression, but no one is going to write his thoughts, or express them by drawings, when he can make words answer. Hence, this form of expression we are speaking about, manual training, can never become universal.

GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD, OF KANSAS: I feel that there has been so much said, and that it has been so well said, that I have no right to occupy your time now. But the fact that there has been so much said and so well said, reminds me of the old maxim: "The worst lie is a half-truth, and the more true the *truth is, the more dangerous the lie is.*" I have no fault to find

with the speakers of this evening so far as the truth they have uttered is concerned, and I have very little criticism to make of their utterance; and yet it is a half-truth: they haven't seen the two sides of the shield, as our friend has spoken. It cannot be that we are confined to the old thought always. We certainly need to reach out further into the world; and thousands of us who from the same standpoint which others occupy handle the things of mathematics with pleasure, who study the sciences with joy, still see something beyond. It is an unpleasant fact, and I am sorry it is true, that in our National Educational Association science has little voice. Science is heard elsewhere. Is there not a grand association for the advance of science composed of scientific professors and scientific observers? Have we ever had upon our program a provision for the hearing of scientific facts, scientific teaching? Scarcely. It will be so, unfortunately, until we can have a broader view and a clearer understanding of things.

Now I agree most perfectly with the statement that education must be general. Those of you who have heard my voice in the Council, and those of you who have listened to me in the section, know how constantly I have insisted upon the fact that education must be general; but the question is, what is "general"? I venture to say that my friend the Professor of Greek in Harvard College is far more of a specialist than any professor in the college over which I preside; far more of a technical student than the most of those engaged in schools of technology. The fact is that general education signifies anything, is not confined to anything, but takes in all that which teaches humanity and all those influences which touch the people. The more we can extend the reach of our powers and the reach of our thought, the more do we grasp real education and general education.

Isn't it possible that we need to revive again the thought of the poet Milton? When he was in college there was a general course of study which he pronounced

"Ragged and jagged lectures of miserable sophistry."

Yet it was a general course of training, but it had lost its hold upon the people and the times.

I do not believe my friend has any such thought in his mind or in his nature as to charge us with looking at one side of the shield. Let us think, then, that all knowledge is the means, the power to know. The other side of the shield is, is it possible to gain the power to know without knowing something? What we do not know has an important bearing upon our power to know. If we have power to know, taking hold of the things which we can use improves our knowing. Otherwise we have the training without the power, the control without the mastery.

I was not quite willing to let this discussion go by the board without calling your attention to the whole field. The whole object of our work is, how can we do the most for the people? The real question is not, What shall the *state do in certain cases*? but, How can the state best serve the greatest

number of its people; how shall the state educate the people to the best results? And these questions manual-educators, like the rest of the educators who have gone before them, honestly discuss, and about these they honestly disagree.

May the future give us a better insight, a clearer science, and a surer grasp of the truth.

18—N. E. A.

THEME: THE RELATION OF THE STATE TO SCHOOL-BOOKS AND APPLIANCES.

THE GENERAL FUNCTION OF THE STATE IN RELATION TO SCHOOL BOOKS AND APPLIANCES.

JOHN SWETT, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

- It is impossible to define exactly the scope of state law in relation to school appliances, because in different states the limits and powers of school laws have been, from the beginning, constantly changing.

In a study of the school systems of the different states of the Union, it is evident that school laws have followed the general law of evolution, beginning with simple functions and becoming more complex and differentiated with the general development of society in population, wealth, and civilization.

The general tendency has been to enlarge the powers of both state and local laws and regulations. This development has been exceedingly irregular in the different states; hence we find school laws in every stage of progress, from the primitive Stone Age to that of iron, steam, and the telegraph.

In the beginning the state required by law that a public school should be maintained in every school district for at least three months in the year, provided for the formation of school districts and the election of trustees, but left all other powers, such as the voting of school taxes, the building of school-houses, and the control of schools in general, to school districts, to cities, or to counties.

The general principle may be roughly stated as follows: The scope of state law in relation to schools has been whatever the people have chosen to make it in order to meet the evident needs of the schools at different periods of development.

My only purpose in this brief introductory paper is to drive a few historical pegs on which to hang some topics for discussion.

I.—AS TO SCHOOL APPLIANCES.

When I began to go to school, fifty years ago, in a New Hampshire village, there was a summer term of two months, taught by a woman; and a winter school of three months, taught by a man. The summer school was generally supplemented by a tuition or private school. Out of this New England custom of supplementing the free school with a tuition school, there grew the rate-bill system, which prevailed in most states for a long time, and

which still maintains a lingering existence in a few states. In California the rate-bill system was abolished by law only in 1868, twenty years ago.

Fifty years ago, pupils, except in some incorporated cities, bought their own pens, ink, paper, pencils, slates, books, and all other school appliances. The school apparatus consisted of one small blackboard, six by three feet, and a lump of chalk. A similar condition of things prevailed in the country schools of California for nearly twenty years, and vestiges of it still continue in sparsely-settled states and territories. But, generally, in cities, and in village and country schools in the more advanced states, the minor school supplies are furnished to pupils free, and the schools are also fairly supplied with maps, charts, and inexpensive apparatus.

In 1862, when I had in hand the revision of the state school laws, I incorporated a provision requiring school trustees to purchase and to supply to pupils, free, all minor school appliances, such as pens, ink, paper, pencils, crayons, towels, wash-basins, etc.,—and nobody, so far as I know, grumbled about it.

The same law also contained a provision for school libraries, requiring that ten per cent. of the state school moneys apportioned to each district annually, not to exceed fifty dollars, should be set apart to be expended by the trustees for the purchase of library books or school apparatus. This provision, too, proved eminently satisfactory. My only regret is that the law did not include school text-books.

The history of other states, too numerous to be mentioned here, shows the same general tendency toward free minor supplies.

The advantages of free supplies are so self-evident that I will not even allude to them. The only valid reason that can be urged against the plan is that when the public money is insufficient to maintain a public school for a reasonable length of time, it is necessary to levy a personal tax on pupils.

II.—AS TO SCHOOL TEXT-BOOKS.

The original unit for the adoption of text-books was the school district or the incorporated city. This was succeeded in the course of time by town adoption in some of the New England states; and by county adoption in the Western and Southern states. Finally, in a few states and territories, the experiment has been tried of a uniform state series adopted by a board of education.

Take California as an illustrative state. From the organization of schools in 1850, up to 1863, cities having local boards of education were authorized to adopt text-books, but in the country districts it generally happened, by the neglect of trustees, that there was a heterogeneous mixture of such books as the pupils happened to have on hand. As a result of this evil the country teachers were clamoring, in every state convention, for state uniformity.

In 1863, when I came into the office of State Superintendent, I drafted a bill—which became a law—providing, except in incorporated cities, for the

adoption of a uniform state series. This law applied to only about one-third of the school children of the state. In 1868 the incorporated cities were placed under the jurisdiction of the State Board of Education, and state uniformity was complete. Trouble began immediately. So great was the popular dissatisfaction that, when the new constitution was framed, in 1879, it contained a provision for county adoption by county boards.

Again, in consequence of popular clamor about change of text-books, an amendment to the constitution was adopted, in 1884, providing for a uniform state series—edited by the State Board of Education, printed by the State Printer, and sold to pupils at cost price.

At the present time there have been published a series of readers, (consisting of three books,) one speller, one arithmetic, one grammar, and one history of the United States, some of which have gone into use in some parts of the state.

California is the only state that has entered into the business of publishing school-books.

This action is outside of what has heretofore been considered as the proper scope of state law. It is too soon to judge of the success or the failure of the experiment. It will be wise for other states to await the result before imitating the example.

We who are living here fondly hope, for the sake of our schools, that the experiment will prove successful; but some of us have grave doubts about it.

As to state uniformity in general, after having watched its gradual development in this state, I regard it as a dangerous assumption of power. In the territories, or in small or sparsely-settled states, it may serve a temporary purpose, but in large and populous states the power of adopting books is too great to be intrusted to any one board.

III.—AS TO FREE TEXT-BOOKS.

Until within the last ten years text-books were seldom furnished to pupils at public expense. There are two notable exceptions. The schools of the city of New York have been supplied with free books since 1806, the year in which free schools were established in that city. The reasons urged in 1806 hold good at the present day. They were as follows:

1. To guard against invidious distinctions among pupils on account of indigence.
2. To facilitate uniform and prompt supplies.
3. To guard against extravagance, the teachers being required to care for the property intrusted to them.

In the city of Philadelphia, free books have been supplied since 1818, the date of the organization of the present system of free schools in that city.

It is singular that these two great cities should have remained so long as the pioneers of free books.

Eight states require by law that free books shall be furnished to indigent

pupils, and several states have a permissive law authorizing cities or towns to supply free books.

It remained for the State of Massachusetts, the cradle of the free school, to make, in 1884, the most notable advance. A compulsory law requiring free books throughout the state was then enacted, and the verdict of the people is that the provision is wise and beneficent.

There is no mistaking the tendency of evolution toward free books.

It is natural that the views of teachers and educators should be biased in favor of the laws and customs of the state in which they reside; but an impartial survey of the whole country shows that the evolution of the school law is, with a few sporadic exceptions, toward free supplies, free text-books, and toward city, township, and county uniformity.

**IF THERE SHOULD BE UNIFORMITY IN TEXT-BOOKS,
SHOULD IT BE (a) BY STATE CONTRACT, (b) BY
STATE PUBLICATION, OR (c) BY STATE
DECREE?**

ALBERT P. MARBLE, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS.

Siberia* is larger than the whole of the United States including Alaska, and all Europe except Russia. It extends from the latitude of New York to the region of perpetual ice—2,500 miles in latitude and 5,000 miles in longitude. In one of its eleven provinces there are 27,000,000 acres of arable land. It produces 50,000,000 bushels of grain annually. This vast territory, including the whole of Asiatic Russia, with its 15,000,000 inhabitants, is governed by the autocrat of all the Russias, 1,900 miles away, and his officers are merely petty despots. There is no public spirit among the people. The houses are log huts; the streets in summer are solid mud; there are no sidewalks in the villages, and no fences around the fields. The government undertakes to do everything, and the people have no voice in it.

In our country the theory of government is precisely the opposite of this. Two things belong to the government: First, to let everyone alone; and, second, to compel other people to let him alone.

Under our institutions, a man stands a king on his own ground, whether it be a village lot of 5,000 feet in Massachusetts, or a ranch of 5,000 acres in California. The government is made up of these individual freemen, every one a king by inheritance. There is no government except the people's will; and President, Congress, courts, are only the registrars of that will for the time being. Hence there is more freedom, more progress, more

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power, in one little state like Massachusetts, with its few thousands of square miles and its million or two of people, than in a whole empire—a whole continent of the subjects of a czar. Here, every man is master of himself. We combine, for certain purposes, in townships; for certain other purposes, in counties; for a broader purpose, in states; and for still broader purposes—for a place in the community of nations—the states have united. No man permits the county or the state to interfere with his home, so long as he himself respects the rights of the individuals who constitute that home; and the Federal Government is powerless in the state, except within its own well-defined sphere. A citizen of California may commit a murder in Nevada, and the President of the United States is as powerless in the matter as the King of the Cannibal Islands; but let the most powerful nation on earth abuse one of our humblest citizens, and the whole power of the nation may be invoked in defense of that citizen.

It is this individual freedom and autonomy; this consolidation of individuals with communities and states; this coördination of states, that has in one century conquered a continent, harnessed the forces of nature to the car of progress and civilization, and developed a national power which may safely defy any empire of the old world whose history covers a thousand years. With us, the primary and fundamental idea from the first has been individual self-activity, and self-support. The pioneer planter in Virginia and the Carolinas wrestled with nature, and she bountifully yielded up her fruits. On the rock-bound coast of New England, the sturdy Pilgrim hewed his way and planted his home. Gathering strength, their sons crossed the barrier of mountains and seized upon the fertile prairies of the West and the fields of the sunny South; waiting awhile, and reinforced by the toilers of the Old World who from afar had scented the air of freedom, and had cast off the traditions of ages—the chrysalis in which they had slept—in the next generation they had swarmed across the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevadas; and “the boundless continent is ours.”

If we ought to adopt, in this country, the political principles and institutions of Russia, should it be: 1. By state legislation; 2. By congressional enactment; 3. By means of the army?

In attempting to know which of these three means would be the best for introducing here the political methods of Russia, every one of them would be seen to be so unfitted for any such purpose as to shut out these methods altogether. And it may be that state domination in respect to school-books, will likewise appear too much like Russia.

State decree means that the state shall order a certain school-book, an arithmetic for example, to be used in all the schools of the state. Such a decree would of necessity fix the price of the book and the time it should continue in use. The reason would be that the state is better qualified than the several municipalities to decide what is the best book; and that parents *who move from one city or town to another* are saved the expense of buying

even school-books for their children. But the number of people who thus change their residence is insignificant; by exchanging their books for other second-hand books, the cost would be light; and where the school-books are owned by the city or county, this difficulty disappears altogether. And who is the state that is able thus to select the best book? There is no state in the Russian sense. Some public officer or officers—the state superintendent, for example, or the principals of the normal schools—must determine what books are to be used, and the price. Now these officers may be the most competent men in the state for their place, or they may be chosen because they happen to belong to the dominant political party. They may also be the best judges of school-books, or they may not. They may be good judges of school-books in a part of the subjects, and poor judges of the others. They may be absolutely incorruptible, or they may be susceptible to those influences by which the judgment of men is liable to be warped.

The legislature may undertake to decree what arithmetic shall be used. A legislature is, in general, a good institution for making laws. But its members are not the best judges of school-books. They are likely to be biased by the personal influence of the representation of a book more than by the merits of the book itself. Greek accent and Latin pronunciation are subjects which can be discussed and passed upon by students better than by legislators or public officers. The same is true of English grammar and arithmetic.

Moreover, what is best for one place is not the best for another. Large cities with forty weeks of school in a year, and with classes graded within six months of one another, require a school-book different in character from those which are best in country schools, with short terms, with older and less closely classified pupils.

And localities, similar in respect to the terms of school, may differ widely in their plans of intellectual advancement; and a presentation of any subject, which is well suited to one, may be but poorly suited to another. And further. Every teacher has his own preferences and peculiarities. Every good teacher can work better with the tools which he likes—the school-books which follow his own plan. If this question of school-books is left where it belongs, to the municipalities, the teachers have their due influence in the selection of books. It would not be best to leave to every teacher the selection of his own books, to be sure; because in every one of the political units which are intrusted with the control of schools there must be some system, since the schools in that municipality must be related to one another. In the eastern states that unit is the town; in the newer states it is the county.

Within this unit the schools are similar; there is a certain homogeneity, which it is almost certain there will not be, in a larger territory, owing to a dissimilarity of population and of interests.

Again, within these units—the towns in the counties—the local interest in schools is stimulated *the more, as the individual citizens as well as the teach-*

ers take part in the control and management of the schools. State decree tends to stifle that interest. It removes so much of the activity of the citizen. It is a bar to progress. If new methods are brought out in improved school-books, they cannot be used. The formula is stereotyped.

No system of public schools can have the highest success, nor can it long endure, without the action and intelligent interest of the community. Compulsory laws, and even constitutional provisions, are inoperative under our free institutions unless they are supported by the intelligent sympathy of the people. With us there is always a way to evade any law which has not the moral support of the people; for the execution of the law rests with the people, or, which is the same thing, with the officers whom the people elect; and officers, as a rule, know who are the masters, and they find out what their masters want before the next election.

If the employment of teachers, the selection of school-books, contracts and plans for school-houses, the purchase of fuel, and all that concerns the schools, are to be conducted by the remote authority of the state, that vital local interest which is indispensable to good schools would be destroyed. The man of intelligence in the neighborhood, whose children go to school, who may visit the school though not officially responsible for it, and who may observe its workings and see its excellences and its defects, and be on terms of intimacy with the teacher of his children—the active interest of this man, and of every other man who is more or less like him, should be utilized in support of the schools. And if he is called upon to take a hand in the decision of questions affecting the school, the thought which he gives to the subject inevitably attaches him to the school. If he is chosen trustee, or school-committeeman, and has to examine the merits of several arithmetics and consult the teacher about it, his acquaintance with arithmetic and with the improved methods of teaching it will be broadened. When the selection of school-books is thus left to the town or the county, not one man, but many men, become thus attached to the schools; and this acquaintance with the subjects of study and the methods of teaching is not confined to one study: it extends to all. School-book agents are educators. From the representations and the misrepresentations of the agents of rival books, the ordinary school-trustee will learn more about arithmetic or any other study, and the various methods of teaching it, than he can learn in twice the time in any other way. But it is not for what he may learn merely that this decision should be left with the school-trustee. As a stimulus to local interest, if for no other reason, so far as possible everything connected with the direct management of schools should be left with the local authorities. The superior wisdom of the higher and remote authorities should exert itself in an advisory way; and there is no doubt that the influence so exerted would be equally effective, while it would not smother the local interest. At any rate it works so in Massachusetts.

Uniformity of school-books by state decree is objectionable, because it

opens the gates to corruption. In each one of the municipalities, there is not much at stake; but few books comparatively, are purchased in any one; the agent of the people is at home among his neighbors; and if there should be any hint of crookedness on his part, the people who pay the bills would be quick to detect it and to stop it. When the question for supplying arithmetics for a whole state is under discussion, the opportunity is presented for some one to secure a large and profitable monopoly. A book which can be profitably sold for \$1 with all the expenses of small sales and active competition, can be furnished at a much lower rate to the whole state; and a small margin with immense sales secured, will make a large profit. In this country there are half-a-dozen large houses publishing school-books; and these, to say nothing about many smaller concerns, have invested, according to Bradstreet, twice as many millions of capital. Such a large investment demands large returns; it is so in any business; and if it were not so in the publication of school-books, the capital would seek other investment. If there are unusual profits in school-books, then more capital would seek investment there. There is nothing to prevent such an investment of all the capital that can so be profitably employed. New concerns are frequently entering the business. They succeed, or they fail, just as in any other business, according to the degree of skill which goes along with the capital and the market. If the price of a book is too high, a rival will supplant it. Competition regulates that trade just as it regulates every other. To place a good arithmetic upon the market, involves a large sum of money. In the first place, it takes brains to make a book which can compete with the other excellent books on the subject; and time, thought, study, experience, enter into the composition of the brains. Brain costs more than muscle. One pound of brain fiber in the human body requires as much blood for its growth and nourishment as forty pounds of muscle. In the second place, mechanical skill is required in making the arithmetic. All this the publisher has secured. He has made the investment; he looks to sales for his return. The state throws itself open for bids. The book which can be sold for one dollar and pay all the expenses of sale can be supplied to the state for 60 cents if the monopoly can be secured; at 65 cents there is a margin of 5 cents a copy which may be expended in securing the monopoly. The book we will suppose is a good one; a large minority of the legislators, perhaps, prefer it for this reason. But a majority of the body, elected to make laws, and not because they are school-masters and competent to make the best selection of school-books, are divided in their preferences for rival books whose publishers are actuated by motives similar to those of the publisher of the book in question. Now in securing the decree for his book would it be strange if one publisher would find among that majority of legislators, a few men who, for a consideration, would join the minority and thus secure the decree for his book? Is this different

from what would happen if the state would undertake to supply all school-children with shoes?

The difference between the school-books and the shoes lies in this: that the average man is a better judge of a shoe than he is of a school-book; and, secondly, the difference is, that the state has wisely refrained from trying to create a monopoly in shoes for school-children. If a state decree were to be proposed for school-shoes, or school-hats, the struggle for that monopoly would in my opinion produce the impression that there is a fabulous profit in the shoe business, or in the hat business, just as the impression prevails that there are unusual returns in the publication of school-books—an impression produced, very naturally, from the large outlays that have been made to secure the monopoly in school-books. Such outlays, whether for a monopoly in school-books or in shoes and hats, are a pure matter of business. The fault lies, not with the firm who desire to sell their goods, but with the un-democratic, the un-American system of creating a monopoly, and of having the state do that which can be better done and more safely done by the individual. If school-books can be sold lower than the prevailing prices, so long as competition is open some one will come forward with an equally good product at a reasonable price. By the laws of business this is inevitable. In my long experience in school-work I have known many publishers of school-books; and I find that they are very much like the men whom I deal with in other kinds of business. They make books in order to make money; they are sharp on a trade; if they can, they will buy brains at the price per pound which muscle costs. They print a good many foolish things, and lose money, no doubt; when they get hold of a good thing they work it for all it is worth. And in it all, they proceed on the same business principles, if they continue to float, which are successful in other kinds of business.

If the selection of school-books under state decree is left to the state superintendent or the board of education, or to a commission created for the purpose, the danger of corruption is reduced to a minimum. These officers are above mercenary considerations, or they would not engage in the unhonored and pecuniarily unprofitable work of education. But the decree would not be confined to arithmetics; it would cover the whole range of school-books. The amount involved would be multiplied. The decision would rest with but few men. The temptation would be proportionally increased. It is not safe to assume, therefore, that even then the danger of corruption would be entirely removed. During the war, a general in command was solicited to allow cotton to be transported through the lines, and \$50,000 was placed within his reach. He refused. The amount was raised repeatedly, and as often rejected. Finally he asked to be recalled, because the sum named was too near his price. School men should be protected from any such temptation, and even from the suspicion of it.

State contract involves the same trampling upon the right of choice of individual communities as state decree does; it smothers local interest in the same way; it invites corruption by the same channels. State contract implies not only that certain books shall be selected for exclusive use; but that the arithmetic, for example, selected shall be purchased by the state in quantities sufficient to supply all the schools. To buy and keep on hand a stock of arithmetics alone for the state would require store-room, clerks, and capital, as extensive as any large business house; and when this outlay is multiplied by the great number of other books, it becomes something enormous. Every town and district in the state must open an account, or else its officers must advance the money, and, when the parents buy the books, collect the amount from them. In order to do this either the money must be raised by tax in advance, or else a system of revolving credits—a *credit mobilier*—must be devised; and of *credits mobilier* there is an unsavory memory in this country. The cost of these large transactions, the interposition of the state as a middle-man between the demand and the supply, would consume a large part if not all of what would be saved in the price of the books; it would involve capital uselessly in handling the books; it creates an unnecessary army of clerks to do what can better be done directly between the parties in interest, the dealer and the purchaser; and worse than this, it is the state setting up in the jobbing business of school-books—a business for which the state is not adapted, any more than an army is adapted to carrying on a camp-meeting.

These attempts at state interference with that which does not belong to the state have not been successful. Naturally they have created evils greater than those which they are intended to cure. They are contrary to the genius of our institutions; for these institutions recognize the people as the source of power, and not some central authority, as in Russia.

State decree is usurpation; it abridges unnecessarily the natural right of a community to secure in its own way the results which the state may properly demand; it almost inevitably breeds corruption. State contract, the next step towards Russia, is a further usurpation; it perverts the function of the state from government to business—from making laws for the general good to selling school-books with a purpose, by no means accomplished with any certainty, of saving a few cents yearly to the individual citizen.

These two having failed to secure what they aimed at—and quite naturally, they fail, because the state is assuming an incompatible function—a third remedy is proposed in state publication.

An American familiar with his country's history and with the development of our institutions, finds it necessary to reconstruct his idea of what a state is, and to attach to it new and unusual functions, before he can contemplate the idea of a state's making school-books. Such a work is in harmony with the imperialism of Russia; but is utterly foreign to American democracy. A paternal government which undertakes to regulate every-

thing about the lives of its subjects may make the school-books which they use, and even prescribe the medicine which they shall take when sick. Our government was founded on the theory that every man can take care of himself, and that he has a right to select his own pills when he is sick; and for making school-books the state has not the necessary machinery any more than for making poetry.

It would strike one as rather a fantastic notion for the State of Massachusetts to undertake to publish its own poetry; and with all due deference to everybody, it would strike me as but a step removed from that absurdity for that state to undertake to publish its own school-books. In that state there are poets, and sons of poets. They write poetry which is sold at a profit. But the best of them would not think of contracting with the state to produce to order ethereal children of the brain. In that state there are men who have made school-books, and there may be others who will make school-books; but they would not think that the state has any property in what they may produce, because they happen to live there. The best poetry is sometimes read outside of the state; and the authors have an income from the sale. Some of the school-books made there have also been sold in other parts of the country, and the authors have derived a revenue from the sale. If any new poet should arise in that State, if he should evince a genius and be enveloped in the divine afflatus of poetry, he would undoubtedly write for a broader constituency than that within the narrow limits of his own State. The same may be true of some rising author of school-books. But Massachusetts is a very small state. Possibly what is said above may not be true in one of the large Western states. Now, with us—that is, in the little “Down East”—the poet who would make a contract to write for the state would be likely not to be the best poet. We prefer to exercise our own choice among all the poets who write. The author of school-books who might write for the state might be selected by Mr. Dickinson, and write to suit him; and no man could, better than he, make the choice: but some of us might prefer another. At any rate, we should feel restricted and uneasy if we were limited in our choice.

But suppose that the state, through its agent, has secured from an author the best work on arithmetic that can be produced. The state must print it, and sell it. After the arithmetic comes the grammar; after the grammar the geography; and after this the history, the reading-books, the spelling-books. Then there must be drawing-books, and writing-books. And why stop here? High schools are useful, and they are commonly thought to be necessary. If the principle of state publication be right, the books used here ought to be published also. But when one thinks of the entire list—the Greek and Latin, the French and German, the chemistry and philosophy, the physiology and botany, the geometry and algebra, the logic and rhetoric, and all the rest—and the dictionaries—one becomes a little doubtful about *entering upon* a course which involves so much. And we cannot consist-

ently stop, even here. If there is any reason for the state's engaging in this business, it is to save to the state, and the people of the state, the money which is made by publishers. But there are other supplies necessary for the schools on which money is made by those who furnish them. There are the globes, the maps, the blackboards, the erasers, the chalk, the pointers, the thermometers, clocks, chairs, desks, brooms, dust-pans, mops, pokers, coal-hods, and the school furniture. Why should not the state provide all these? And this is not all. The pupils are required, or at least expected, to attend school. During this period of their lives they must be clothed and fed. There are so many of them that this could be done more cheaply, perhaps, at wholesale—by the state. And when we have gone so far, it is but a step more to include the parents, since they have furnished the children; and the rest of the family because they belong to the parents. Thus we reach the end where the state, which with us means only the people of the state, takes care of the people of the state; that is, everybody takes care of everybody. Now I defy anyone to show any stopping-place short of this end, where you can logically cease to do the work by the state, if it is right to begin. And if anyone objects to this *reductio ad absurdum* as being extreme, or trivial, let me say, that in the legislature of an eastern state, last winter, a bill was introduced requiring cities and towns to clothe and feed a certain large per cent. of the school-children. If my supposition is absurd, then, the facts are not less so.

But suppose we stop at the books in use in the grammar schools. There are many reasons why the state cannot publish even these:

1. To complete the entire list will take from six to ten years; and the more quickly they are hurried through, the poorer they are likely to be.
2. After all the expenses incurred in making them, they are likely to remain in use long after the period of their highest usefulness is passed.
3. If by the time the last of the series is finished, the first is revised or a new book is made to take its place, the state is then entering upon a perpetual work of book-making.
4. Books made in this wholesale way must of necessity be as inferior relatively as ready-made clothing is inferior to a custom-made suit.
5. If one or all the books are suited to individual localities, they will of necessity be unsuited to others. Ready-made clothing does not fit all forms.
6. Even with the periodical revision noted above, such books would inevitably be behind the times and not abreast of the best educational thought.
7. Jobbery will be sure to creep in where there is so large an expenditure in printing and binding and circulating the books.
8. Counting the money at first invested, and the necessary wear and tear and repair of machinery, including also the salaries of officers in charge of the work, the aggregate cost of school-books will be greater to the state. It goes without saying that any sort of business can be carried on by private enterprise more *economically* than by the government. The government

cannot successfully manage railroads, nor canals, nor steamship lines. The State of New York did build the Erie canal; and the United States Government pushed to completion the first Pacific railroad: But both these enterprises were pioneers in the field, and both gave rise to grave political scandals. Both involved immense and unnecessary outlay.

9. And again, state publication tends to suppress educational progress. If right for one state, it is right for all; and when once there comes to be no demand for improved school-books, then they will cease to be made. Now nothing shows more clearly the progress of education within the past twenty-five years than the improvements in school-books. A comparison of the old books with the new, in any subject, will exhibit this improvement. This improvement is due, first, to the enterprise and the competition of school-book publishers in the open field; and secondly, the improvement is due to the stimulus which teachers feel in this open field of competition to devise new methods of teaching and new and attractive forms in which to present the subjects.

10. School officers can be employed in improving the school system in better ways than in making school-books and supervising the details of the manufacture and distribution of these books.

11. To enforce the use of the school-books, published, or decreed, or contracted for, a new set of crimes or misdemeanors must be created by statute: and if the President of the National Educational Association were to remove to some one of the glorious Western states, he might be fined or imprisoned like Daniel, if he did not conform!

And what is the necessity or occasion for any such state interference as is here contemplated, either by state contract, publication, or decree? On one of my shelves are two or three dozens of arithmetics, by different authors and publishers; on another, as many grammars; on five or six shelves as many sets of readers. From all these the school committee can select that which suits them best, considering both price and quality. Why, then, should the State of Massachusetts step forward, and by decree, or by getting up another book, force upon Worcester a particular book? And if that city and the other municipalities of the state be not competent to decide for themselves, can they, in their corporate capacity as a state, decide any better?

The school authorities in my state go out and stimulate the local authorities and the teachers, by institutes. They advise and suggest; but they never command. And if any centralized power at Boston were to set up a little Russian despotism and prescribe to the people of the state in the matter of methods or school-books, there are enough of the spiritual descendants of the original tea-party, in the state, to go down to Boston and pitch that little despotism into the sea as their ancestors did the British tea, more than a century back. These men are not yet ready to give up their liberties.

I confess that one thing, in this business, surprises me. I have crossed

the continent for light. In '49, when I saw a cousin of mine for the last time as he left home to sail away around Cape Horn to the newly discovered El Dorado of the West, boy as I was, I longed for the shining gold that lay strewn along the gravelly beds of the streams, free to him who would come and pick it up.

Now, after forty years of waiting, when the gold has hidden itself in the rocky recesses of the mountains, and can be had only by means of costly machinery, I hear that some school-books have been issued in this favored state. In a luxurious sleeper I rode over the crests of the Rockies and of the Sierras, to find populous cities, and fertile fields, vineyards rich with grapes, and a population generous and hospitable beyond anything that has been heard of or read about anywhere.

But those school-books, which doubtless contain the gems of knowledge, and the gold of educational thought, are locked up by statute; and as I could not buy one of them when at home, so I cannot get one to carry back unless I steal it, or some one violates the law.

Massachusetts has not so dealt with the intellectual products of her sons. By what nightmare of state publication has this generous people been so oppressed, that they deny the light of knowledge to their benighted fellow-citizens, and that they thus place a Chinese wall around the products of the mind?

SHOULD THE STATE FURNISH BOOKS AND APPLIANCES FREE?

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Complaint of the cost of text-books is as old as the system of free schools. Sometimes the complaints have been well founded, but oftener without any foundation. It may be that the phrase "free schools" has given the impression that they should be free of all expense to those who patronize them. These patrons look upon education by the state as a natural right, and forget that the free-school system is a civil institution which the state has established for its own protection. If public education were not essential to the existence of the state, and intelligence of the people necessary to good government, the state would have no valid reason for providing for the intellectual and moral education of the youth within the domain of the state. This principle is not fully apprehended or is forgotten, so it is claimed as a natural right to put upon the state the responsibility and all the expense of the education of the youth. Those making this assertion are unwilling to take any responsibility and to bear any direct expense in the education of their children. So a reasonable expense for text-books and supplies is re-

garded as robbery. It cannot be accounted for otherwise when a man of some intelligence who in other affairs exhibits good sense, will spend cheerfully and with pleasure twenty-five dollars for holiday toys that will give no lasting enjoyment nor profit of any kind to his child, and at the same time will denounce as corruptionists and robbers the school authorities who require of him an expenditure of twenty-five cents for a text-book. His idea is evidently, the schools of the state are absolutely free. Complaints of the cost of text-books and supplies are seldom made by those who patronize private schools. In most cases the greater the expense, the higher the respect for the school and the stronger the belief the children are making rapid progress.

What are free schools? Those supported at public expense. But the state fixes limitations to the public expenditure for school purposes; beyond a certain levy for school purposes the people of organized communities may not go for the maintenance of schools. If the amount raised by taxation is sufficient to provide suitable buildings with appropriate furniture, apparatus for the common good, fuel, janitors, and competent teachers, all that pertains to the children whom the law prescribes entitled to the privileges of the school, but does not provide free of expense the individual necessities of the children, as text-books and supplies, the school is a free school. It is made so by provision for general and not individual expense. This is called a free country, yet the liberties of the people are circumscribed by legal enactments. The public schools are free, but the qualifications of those to whom they are open are specified, the studies to be pursued are limited by statute, and the conditions which must be complied with are prescribed by law. While we may speak of our school system as free, yet no system of schools under the control of the laws of any state, however liberal the provisions, can be said to be literally "free schools." When the state encourages education and bears such burdens as are too heavy for the people of average industry to carry, and liberally shares the expenses of education with those having children to be educated, she has done her whole duty.

The state should make it not only possible, but comparatively easy, for the poorest parent to obtain for his children a common-school education; but it would be unwise for the state to assume the whole expense and responsibility. Both the state and individual are deeply interested, and therefore the expense and responsibility should be shared by each. All legislation that relieves the family of burdens it is able to carry by proper effort offers a premium for idleness, and imposes upon the industrious. How far the state should go in relieving families of the care of the unfortunate—the blind, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, etc.—is a question of great importance. The state evidently should not go as far as to relieve the family of all care and concern. Much less should the state be held responsible for the education of the youth of sound body and mind, and leave the family *free from all obligations* which a share in the expense of education must

necessarily bring. For one to be indifferent concerning the education of his offspring is culpable, to be insensible to responsibility for their education is inhuman, and for a state to encourage either is dangerous.

While the state protects itself against ignorance and pauperism by the education of the people of the state, and thereby perpetuates itself and its institutions, the people receive advantages which are to each one a personal gain in his mental and moral development. For this individual and personal benefit the state should require the taxpayer and the non-taxpayer to do for themselves and on their own account what is reasonable to secure a common-school education. Thus the state and the family unite in the supply of the means for education. For the state, therefore, to require those attending the public schools to purchase text-books and such supplies as are deemed necessary, is reasonable. It is certainly a very small part of the cost of education; not more than is sufficient to remind the family that with it rests an obligation. The state has done its part: will the family do the same?

In misapprehension of what is meant by free schools in a free state; in a misinterpretation of the relation of the state to her people; often in ignorance, and in a desire for gain; in prejudice against so-called monopolies; in the jealousy of the poor for the rich, the widespread and indignant outcry against the publishers of school-books has had its origin. So persistent and loud has been the cry, and so long has it continued, that almost all the arguments against the public-school system are embodied in one complaint—the robbery of the people by a great school-book monopoly, aided and abetted by corrupt school-boards, superintendents, and teachers.

No one will claim greater honesty and purity for this class of persons than is common among men. In the introduction of school-books, the best interests of the people may not always have been considered. Corrupt methods may have been successfully used by rival publishers; yet, perhaps, to a less extent than in any other business. The alleged abuses have been brought into the state legislature, and various and novel have been the attempts of the state law-makers to correct them. At the present writing a large majority of the states require, by enactment, the pupils to purchase their own text-books and individual supplies. These they may obtain of merchants dealing in such articles, and at such prices as the dealers place upon their merchandise. Boards of education adopt such text-books as seem to them necessary and for the best interests of the pupils. Such text-books are generally selected as are approved by the superintendents and teachers. Supplies are often left optional, with the exception of slates, pencils, and pens.

It was soon found that a compulsory clause was necessary to compel the children, on pain of suspension, to procure the prescribed text-books and such other materials as boards of education might determine. This was sometimes more than the person believing that free schools meant freedom

from all requirements could stand. This led to litigation in many cases, and boards of education were roundly abused, and charged with a moneyed interest in the sale of text-books. The publishers of school-books answered the demands of teachers for such books as were abreast of the best-known methods of teaching, printed and illustrated in the highest style of modern art, and thus added something to the cost of books. They believed the educators and the people would sustain them, and that the best books, although not the cheapest, would find the most ready sale. Hence there grew up among publishers a rivalry to secure the services of authors, the most skillful and successful teachers, to enable them to furnish school-books of the greatest merit. But in many cases the increase in price was attributed to the greed of publishers, and not to the increased cost in manufacturing. Complaints of extortion grew more and more numerous. Politicians thought they saw in these complaints opportunities to make themselves popular with the people. They posed as reformers of the abuses of the people. Thus began the remarkable history of school-book legislation. There have been wise and judicious measures proposed and passed by state legislatures, but the greater number has been unwise.

In many states, boards of education are authorized by law to supply indigent pupils with text-books free of expense. This is a wise provision, and in some cases it enables children to avail themselves of the public schools who otherwise could not. Yet as a rule those who are too poor to purchase text-books are not able to supply themselves with clothing and other material necessary as an outfit for school. It is generally wiser for the school authorities to turn them over to some charitable institution that will furnish them with all the supplies they need. The public school is in no sense nor should it be regarded as a charitable institution. If a supply of text-books is the only obstacle in the way of school attendance, then the state should provide the remedy — not in the name of charity, but solely for the interest of the state. Each state has its charitable institutions, which are the pride of the commonwealth; but the public school is not one of them.

All legislation on text-books has been on the theory that they cost too much money, and could be manufactured for much less. The publishers have grown immensely rich at the expense of the people. There is a school-book ring, a combination, a big monopoly, which is absorbing the hard earnings of the people. It can be crushed out only by a monopoly of greater power which has more money at its back; so the state in several instances has put in capital not only against private enterprise and competition, but has exercised its power to cut off competition, and become a grand monopoly without a possible chance for individual enterprise. It is argued that the public-school system is a state institution and is legitimately under the direction and control of the state, therefore the state has a right and it is the duty of the state to see that text-books and supplies are furnished

at the lowest possible cost to the people. Yes; but it is unfortunate for the argument that most states have departments of agriculture, and through these, on the same principle, the farmers should be furnished at the cheapest rate plows, reapers, mowers, etc.; therefore the state should set up such manufacturing establishments as will produce the cheapest agricultural implements. The state attempts to control and regulate the liquor traffic; let the state manufacture it and put the saloons in charge of government officials, so that drinks may be procured at the cost of manufacturing with 10 per cent. for handling. Thus if the state depart from the safe and fundamental principle of republican government, viz., that the state should not interfere nor come in competition in any case with the legitimate enterprise of the people of the state, the energies and business of the most progressive and intelligent citizens will be paralyzed. For a state to regulate and set up guards against fraud and extortion is within the province of legislatures, and this they should do; but for them to take business out of the hands of the individual citizens is to discourage enterprise, invention, and industry, and to encourage idleness and pauperism.

But is it possible for a state to produce a text-book for schools, without competition, of equally as good quality and as cheap as individual publishers, with competition subject to the tests of scholars and educators rather than politicians? Is it possible for a hired commission to produce text-books as acceptable to the progressive teacher as books would be that come from authors whose knowledge and experience have given them clear notions of what text-books should be? Is it advantageous to a state to shut out all text-books not only not purchased within its domain, but to limit their production to a commission the test of whose qualifications is personal and political favor with the powers that be? The teacher who has an ambition and an inspiration to write a text-book is generally a good teacher or believes himself to be such. He should have the opportunity given him to gratify this ambition, which he cannot have unless he goes to another state more liberal, where machine books would not be tolerated. No scheme that has been devised for cheapening the cost of text-books is so impracticable and visionary as the one which proposes the preparation and publication of text-books by the state.

Allied to this scheme is one to cheapen text-books by state uniformity. A uniformity of text-books within certain limitation is desirable. It is perhaps well for a system of schools under one board of education and one superintendent to have uniformity of text-books, but the instruction will be broader and better in many subjects without uniformity. For example, a class in history of the United States, or general history, or in geography, will do better work if every member of the class has a book by a different author. From an educational standpoint, state uniformity is clearly against progress. I do not know that this scheme has a friend among prominent

educational men anywhere, east or west; and yet it would be one of the results of the state going into the publishing business. The difference of conditions between the country schools and the city schools would not be considered. No opportunities would be offered for the profession to improve its own method of instruction. The selection of text-books for the state would be necessarily put into the hands of a commission appointed by the legislature or the governor. The people would have no recourse, no appeal from its decision or contracts. The publishers of the books adopted would have a general monopoly, and if the prices were low it would be easy to make the quality of paper and binding to correspond. The adoption would have to be for a long period, and the saving in expense to the people on this account would be lost in the improvement of methods as suggested by the most recent text-books. No one would dare say that a commission made up of even scholarly men, and men of experience as educators, would equal in their combined wisdom and knowledge the local boards of education which come direct from the people. The scheme is contrary to the genius of our republican form of government. The uniformity of text-books if desirable at all should be to the unit of the school system of any state. If the unit is the township, uniformity in the text-books should be limited to the township; if the county, then the county should be the limit.

Further than this, uniformity would obstruct progress and fail to secure text-books at reduced rates. Another plan to give to the people cheaper text-books is in force in Ohio. It is as follows: Boards of education may purchase direct from the publisher or dealer at the lowest wholesale or contract prices such necessary school text-books and other school supplies as may be determined by the board, and furnish the same to pupils in the schools under its control at cost price. Also, if it be shown to the satisfaction of the board of education that the parent or guardian has not the means wherewith to purchase for his child or children the necessary school-books to enable him to comply with the requirements, the board may furnish the same free of charge, to be paid for out of the contingent fund at the disposal of the board. This act is permissive. The board may, if it is thought desirable, save to the pupil a large per cent. of the profits of retail dealers. Only a small number of the boards in the state avail themselves of its provisions. They believe that a bookseller is a useful person in a community and should be encouraged. This is a sensible law, and is in keeping with the usual good common-sense of the people of the Buckeye State.

The State of Pennsylvania goes a little farther in a permissive law, which says: "School directors or controllers may purchase text-books for use in the public schools of their respective school districts out of the school funds of the district, and when so procured the necessary books shall be supplied free of cost to each pupil for use in the schools of said district,

subject to the orders of the directors thereof, whose duty it shall be to provide for the safe-keeping and care of the books, which shall be returned at the close of the annual school term in each year or as the board may direct." Many towns and cities of Pennsylvania have availed themselves of this permissive act. Among these are Philadelphia, Chester City, and many townships in Chester, Delaware, Bucks, and Montgomery counties. Mr. Stewart, the Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction, says: "The plan where adopted has given entire satisfaction. It is the most economical way to provide books, and reduces the cost in the aggregate very materially. It is certainly a questionable policy to confer authority on the state to publish text-books for the public schools, whether furnished free or otherwise." The State of Massachusetts has gone a step farther than Pennsylvania, and has made the act mandatory. It is as follows:

"The school committee of every city and town shall purchase at the expense of such city or town, text-books and other supplies used in the public schools; and said text-books and supplies shall be loaned to the pupils of said public schools free of charge, subject to such rules and regulations as to care and custody as the school committee may prescribe."

Massachusetts is the only state absolutely requiring boards of education to supply free text-books. It is her pride to be at least one step in advance of all her sister states. She is nothing if not radical. The children are being trained to buy nothing which they can borrow. A Massachusetts man stopped with an Ohio friend. In the chamber in which he slept was a Bible. When he had gone, his Ohio host discovered that he had borrowed the Bible. Everybody in Massachusetts loans what he has and borrows what he has not. Books in this state are like children—well enough to have around, but not profitable to own. Education is a good thing, but not worth personal effort and sacrifice. Mr. Lowell has told us that "There is one thing better than a cheap book, and that is a book honestly come by." Mr. Curtis has aptly put the same thought: "Cheap books are good things, but cheapening the public conscience is a very bad thing." Reports from Massachusetts tell us with great unanimity that the plan works admirably. How could it be otherwise? It is quite natural to take all we can get. Everyone is pleased, if not grateful, to get something for nothing. The sons and daughters of Massachusetts are being trained in this art. When they come from the east to this land of sunshine and flowers, they will expect you to loan them orange-groves, grape-ranches, and gold-mines.

The principle underlying free text-books is wrong, and must result in evil. The government is the best which gives the people the power and opportunity to do the most for themselves. There can be no coöperation without co-interest; to be interested in anything, the person must have a share that has a value—that it costs something to secure—even in education. There are therefore limitations beyond which the state, for its own safety,

should not go. The state which supplies those wants of its people that by common industry and economy they can supply for themselves, encourages idleness and dependence.

The wisdom of a state's expenditure of money for education depends upon the good that will result therefrom. The people are less inclined to pay for teaching-power than for text-books. The state should therefore increase its expenditure for teaching-talent and qualifications, and put upon the shoulders of the people the burdens of text-books. What is most needed are smaller text-books and larger brains. If the people will patiently and cheerfully bear heavier taxation for public schools, let it be in the direction of increasing the number and improving the qualification of teachers in the schools, and diminishing the per capita of pupils to the teacher. There would be no comparison in the value of the results over an expenditure that would give the pupils free text-books. The appropriation of money for the purchase of text-books is in the wrong direction, for it is spending where it will not do the most good. Many advantages are claimed for this measure by its friends in Massachusetts; among them, it has increased the attendance. Grant this; but in referring to the United States Commissioner's report of 1885-1886, it is recorded that the rate of enrollment to the population in Massachusetts was 18 per cent.; in Ohio, where the free-text-book system is not in force, 23.15 per cent. Most all the Northern and Western states show a larger percentage of attendance than Massachusetts.

But, is the offer of free text-books a proper incentive to secure a larger attendance? Is not the effort which a poor boy is compelled to put forth to equip himself for school as good training as he will get in the school itself? Working and saving to be able to purchase his text-books, accompanied by the feeling of absolute ownership, will be quite as valuable in the formation of character as anything the school will do for him. It may be said there are other things by which the boy may learn this lesson; yes, but none binds him as closely to his school, and impresses him so deeply with the feeling that he has a part to perform. It often happens that a parent who has been at the expense of purchasing text-books will insist upon his child attending school for this reason alone.

It will not be amiss to inquire into the cost of school-books and supplies to ascertain definitely if possible the actual burdens their purchase imposes. The course of study in city systems of school below the high school embraces a period of about eight years. In the city with which I am most familiar, text-books and supplies are purchased by the pupils of retail dealers. The average annual cost per capita for four years, primary grades, is \$1.27; for four years, grammar grades, \$4.08; or for eight years, primary and grammar, an average cost per annum for each pupil of \$2.67½. This includes the following items: Text-books; 6 different readers, 2 grammars, 2 arithmetics, 3 geographies, 3 music readers, 1 United States history, 1

science primer, 10 copy-books, 12 drawing-books, 6 blank composition-books. Supplies: 2 slates and pencils, lead pencils and pens, penholders, sponges, erasers, drawing-instruments, metric ruler, and drawing and copy-book covers. The whole expense to the pupil for the eight-years course is \$21.40. Should text-books and supplies be purchased by boards of education at wholesale and not retail dealers, the cost per pupil for eight years' course would be \$16.05, or \$5.35 less, which would be an average cost per year for each pupil of \$2. Should boards of education purchase the supplies, and require the pupils to purchase their text-books, the cost per pupil for eight years would be \$12.77. At the highest prices, the burden is not heavy for even a day-laborer. The expense for the entire school course for eight years is but a little more than the amount necessary to keep a healthy boy in shoes one year. It is barely large enough to remind the parent that he has some share in the education of his child. In many cases it is the only thread that holds the parents and the schools together. This should not be severed. It is quite natural for people to interest themselves in nothing unless in it they have a money interest. The only advantage that I can see that would come out of a system of free text-books is, that it would stop for a time the mouths of grumblers. The same people will demand more. Take the children of some people—clothe, feed, shelter and educate them—and they will still grumble. Every step taken, by legislation or otherwise, to lighten the responsibility of the people in the education of their children, weakens the system and lessens interest in the schools. On the contrary, every dollar spent by the state for greater teaching ability and better scholarship will strengthen the system of public education.

The tendency of our Republic toward communism should be checked rather than encouraged. Too many responsibilities which every American family should bear are now borne by the government. It will be a great calamity to our Republic, and our free institutions, when families feel that they are wholly released from all responsibility and expense in the intellectual and moral training of their children. The family should be made to feel that the state has done its whole duty when it has done for the family what the family cannot do for itself. The impending danger of our system of public schools is their expensiveness. The constantly increasing expenditure is in that direction which adds little to the educational power of the public schools. The scheme of free text-books is another recruit for "bricks against brains." In most of the states, the amount that can be levied for school purposes is fixed by statute, and in the towns and villages the levy is generally up to the maximum allowed by law. If the cost for education is increased one dollar per capita, that plan of free text-books may be adopted, the result must be the employment of cheaper teachers.

From a professional standpoint, I can see no good results that will come from a system of free text-books; but on the contrary, great dangers. The

taxation in the Northern states for school purposes is as heavy as the people will bear. The plan of free text-books means higher taxes, or a diversion of the money now raised from more useful purposes.

FREE TEXT-BOOKS FOR FREE SCHOOLS.

THOMAS TASH, PORTLAND, MAINE.

It is a proposition seldom requiring a demonstration, that the strength and influence of a people depend upon its intelligence. It is equally beyond question, that a people is in duty bound to use all proper means to increase its strength and extend its influence. To spread general intelligence, then, is the duty of our Republic, and the means most promotive of this is the system of free schools. Whatever efforts are made to improve these, and render them more efficient, are to be regarded, not as humane, merely, but as patriotic. It is not enough that our states provide free schools: they must insist on a prompt and regular attendance upon them, and should endeavor to make them in every way most efficient.

Among the instrumentalities on which the value of every school depends are its text-books. However much oral instruction may be given, the experienced teacher knows that one of his most effective tools is a good text-book. The want of suitable text-books often impairs the usefulness of schools otherwise good, and the diversity of them has, in rural districts, been the source of great annoyance and waste of time, by preventing a prompt and economical classification.

The frequent changes in school-books made necessary by constant improvements in books, and especially the changes that must be made as scholars are promoted from class to class, and as parents move from town to town, result in an expenditure so burdensome to many families as to cause reasonable complaint—often, real hardship. Parents with large families, under the necessity of frequent removals, are the ones least able to bear this tax upon their slender incomes; so their children, from lack of text-books, are kept from school altogether, or receive much less benefit while they do attend. The family has school-books enough, but they are valueless to them for school purposes, not being the ones in use. Had these been left where used, and similar ones found in the new locality, a loss of both time and money would have been avoided. It is not enough to say that books must be furnished to the indigent. The greatest hardship and loss occur where parents are unwilling to avail themselves of this provision. A book with a city seal in it, when only furnished to indigent children, comes to be regarded by the

child as a mark of poverty, and a disgrace, whereas it may, as in the public library, by furnishing for all alike, become a mark of sovereignty.

Not only as children enter school after removals, but as they advance from grade to grade, or class to class, books slightly worn have to be laid aside and new ones procured. In almost every household can many dollars' worth of half-worn but useless school-books be found, sufficient in value in every town to establish a respectable library.

To remedy these evils "uniformity of text-books" has been proposed; but this, in most states, has met with little favor, and, where tried, with less success. The waste of text-books, by being laid aside partially worn, is not at all met by state uniformity; it can be avoided only by free text-books.

The objection has been raised that the state may as well relieve parents by requiring towns and cities to furnish the clothing of school children as to furnish text-books in the schools. One making this objection deserves to have lived among the ancient Spartans, where the objection could hardly have been raised. Such an objector evidently looks upon the free school as a magnificent charity, and not as a political necessity. Text-books are a necessity to common-school education which the state, for her own preservation and welfare, has undertaken to supply; clothing is a necessity to the individual's physical welfare, over which the state has not yet assumed full control.

The state imposes upon municipalities the duty of raising taxes to defray the expenses of procuring lots, erecting and repairing school-houses, providing school furniture and fuel, and furnishing suitable instruction. The right and wisdom of the state thus to provide for the education of her citizens is beyond question; it is, therefore, not only a proper but a wise economy to add to these expenditures all that is essential to render her schools in a high degree effective. If the furnishing the desks of school-houses with suitable text-books will largely increase the efficiency of the schools, while it diminishes their cost to parents far more than is its expense to the public, it becomes a public good, and may, with great propriety, be done. The text-books may as properly be supplied to the school as the fuel or the desks even.

Granting, then, that the text-book may with propriety be furnished at the public expense, we will consider the wisdom of doing so as a measure of *convenience* and of *economy*.

1. *As a measure of convenience.* Teachers having full control of books can better control the hours of study. It is nearly as important in school *when* a pupil studies a particular lesson as *how*; for systematic study produces real discipline; random study tends to dissipate and confuse. Anything that secures regularity in study is a great convenience, to say nothing more.

The same book or series of books in a particular branch of study, is not equally adapted to all schools where that study is pursued. The number of months the schools are run, and the time children are on the average annu-

ally kept in them, will greatly vary; consequently the books adopted for use must vary likewise. In a manufacturing village, the studies may properly somewhat differ from those in a commercial city, and in a farming district they may be somewhat different still. Some instruction in mechanics and mechanical drawing, bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, horticulture and agricultural chemistry may properly be imparted in all these schools but the amount of time to be devoted to these and to other studies must be measurably determined by the probable future needs of the children. Text books should be selected adapted to their circumstances; and this can most easily be done when they are furnished free, and should mistakes in selection be made, such mistakes can much more readily be corrected.

With free text-books, school-boards and committees can more easily and promptly classify their schools. Much confusion, especially in rural districts, results from the ownership of wrong and unsuitable books. In such schools, scholars do not pursue all the studies they should, nor such as they ought, on the plea that they have not the books. Free text-books obviate all this difficulty. Those of the same proficiency can with free books be put in the same classes. No waiting for slow-moving fathers to get their books, nor wasting of precious time for want of books. In city schools also, much of the difficulty attending promotion, and especially of *reducing the grade of scholars for loss of time or neglect of study*, will vanish when text books are furnished free. Parents when relieved of the expense of procuring books will criticise far less the classification of their children.

When relieved from the expense of procuring text-books, parents are found to be more ready to procure books for reference and general reading—books valuable to *themselves* as well as to their children. So long as there is a pile of useless school-books in the home, books lose their value in the eyes of parents, to whom they have been a source of expense, and of only temporary value. They forget of what real use these books have been in their present worthlessness; and they are led to look upon the procuring of new books as a useless expense to add to present rubbish. Where school books are the property of the school-room, and only seen at home when brought there for use, these books have to parents a real value, a value increased by the charm of their temporary possession. No school-book can under such circumstances ever appear worthless in the household, any more than books taken from a public library, for it is kept only long enough to impart the interest of novelty, not long enough to tire by sameness; only long enough to impress its value by use, not long enough to tire by its worthlessness in disuse. Thus school-books, in their temporary and welcome visits, incite in families a desire for books, leading them to procure other books of permanent utility—a library for reference and reading.

It has been found that several readers may be profitably used as supplementary to each other in the same class. This is as true of other studies as of reading. We would not think of asking parents to bear the expense of

procuring several books in the same study: not even supplementary readers. Most cities, even where free text-books are not generally furnished, supply free supplementary reading-books, singing-books, and many other free supplies. Where text-books are supplied free, supplementary books may be supplied in any study without increase of cost—two sets of readers, lasting six years, costing no more than one set, lasting three years; and so of other books.

2. *As a measure of economy.* It is sometimes objected, that the first cost to municipalities in the introduction of free text-books involves great expense, even though the annual expense is moderate afterward. The first year's expense need not be great. Some towns begin to furnish new books free on the condition that children having suitable books continue to use them; and that pupils promoted leave their old books in the rooms where last used—as they are found quite ready to do, having no further use for them. This deposit of old books lessens materially the first year's expense; and this is further lessened by towns being able to procure the first supply at reduced rates, or introduction prices. In Bath and Lewiston, Maine, the first places in my own state and in New England adopting the plan, the first year of the adoption was one of the least expensive; this has since proved to be the case in many other towns and cities.

School authorities, in purchasing books and other school appliances at stated times, in quantity, with undoubted credit, either of publishers directly or through their local trade, can procure their supply at a much less cost than parents can do.

Again, books, when once furnished, will be used by classes in succession until worn out, and not, as when furnished by parents, be thrown aside half-worn. Pupils are found to be no more unwilling to use books previously in use than to use books taken from a circulating, or free library.

When a family moves from town to town there will be no loss in school-books. Though the books be entirely different in the two localities, pupils leave their old ones where they are useful, and find a new supply without cost to take their place. The necessary wear of books where furnished is all that is lost, and this towns rightly assume with vast saving and convenience to the public.

The saving of time to children in school, already alluded to, is, perhaps, the greatest economical consideration for free text-books. Children, where books are not furnished, are often kept from school week after week, or kept in improper classes, or without sufficient class-work, to their own harm and the impediment of others, from the inconvenience, the neglect, or the inability of parents to procure the required books. Besides, were it not for the expense of the necessary text-books, and these become more expensive the further the child advances, many children, now prematurely withdrawn from school, would be carried much further in their school course under

the system of free text-books. This saving in school time is alone a sufficient plea for free text-books.

The gentleman who opens this question on "text-books, &c.," affirms that "the cost of text-books is less than is generally supposed," under the old plan. "If purchased by boards at wholesale rates, and sold to the pupils, the cost is \$16.05" "for an eight-years course," \$2 per annum for each scholar. Had he continued this course four or five years longer the cost must have averaged much higher. On the free-text-book plan the cost per pupil on a liberal scale, including the high school, is not over \$1 annually to the town—in many places not over 75 cents, as is proved by abundant experience.

Books furnished by a town or city are much more carefully used, and better kept than when owned by the children. It might at first be supposed that this would not be so; but uniformly it is found to be true. There are four parties interested in the preservation of these books—school officers, teachers, parents, and children. Small books used in the lower grades by young children must be expected to wear out, and to need replacing, annually perhaps, but their cost is trifling; the larger and more valuable books in the higher classes will last for several years.

Every teacher knows that ownership in books is one of the promptest excuses for their abuse. There can be few school-rooms found where *all* the books in use are fit to be looked over by a visitor. Not only written over, but scribbled over; they are filled from cover to cover with pencilings fit and unfit for sight; not only torn but tattered; sorry-looking sights are many of our text-books owned by the children; not in our lowest and poorest schools alone, but in our best schools, our high schools even. Let the books belong to the school, and the teacher feel full control, as well as full accountability, and scholars will be taught the proper use of books—a lesson of great practical value.

Having advocated the system of free text-books for over thirty years, and having nearly twenty years since in our *Maine Journal of Education* given to the public the arguments contained in my present paper, I feel a just pride in the results of what was then an experiment. The large cities of Philadelphia, New York, Brooklyn, and several of the cities of New Jersey have long used the system. More than a quarter of the text-books used in my own State of Maine are furnished free by the voluntary action of cities and towns, our state law being only a permissive one. More than one-half the text-books used in the New England states are now furnished free. The State of Massachusetts has made the law obligatory upon her towns to furnish text-books free in all their school-rooms. The plan is quietly penetrating the West, and even now is in successful use in cities of Wisconsin and of Nebraska. The result is inevitable. Free schools carry with them logically free text-books. "On general principles, it is difficult to see why the

city or town that on grounds of public policy and necessity is required by law to provide school-rooms and teachers, and school appliances for their children, ought not also to provide them that most essential school-appliance—text-books.”

We will only add that the measure wherever adopted has been found a popular one. The leading, wealthiest, and most intelligent citizens, are its most earnest advocates. No town or city having once adopted the plan, has, so far as we can discover, ever “gone back upon it.”

STATE UNIFORMITY OF TEXT-BOOKS.

L. S. CORNELL, DENVER, COLORADO.

The question of uniformity in text-books has now been discussed for more than a generation, and has been “settled” by teachers’ associations, by state officials, and by legislatures, again and again; but this is one of those questions that will not stay “settled.” It is continually coming up in a new form or in a new locality. In some states uniformity has been adopted, repealed and readopted, while in those that have not tried the plan its advocates are ever ready to plead its cause.

Uniformity of text-books did not always have the meaning that these words now convey. Some of us can remember when each child came to school supplied with such books as had come down to him through the careful hands of two or three generations, or had been given him by some kind-hearted neighbor. If perchance he owned a book purchased for him, it might be any one of several varieties on sale in the village store. A country teacher with fifty or sixty pupils of all ages thus equipped, could have but one opinion on the desirability of uniform text-books.

That chaotic condition of things, so wasteful of the teacher’s energy and so opposed to orderly, systematic work, is past. Children of the same grade in a school use only one kind of book on each subject. Not only is this true, but, pleased with the results of their work and apparently acting on the principle that “one cannot have too much of a good thing,” the reformers have secured the adoption of uniform series of books in townships, counties, and states. Whether this is another case of pendulum-like swinging from one extreme to the other, is perhaps still an open question. Township uniformity is no doubt desirable when the township is the unit of the system, and the schools are all under one management. The same may be said of county uniformity when the schools are thoroughly organized and the county superintendent is in fact a superintendent of schools. But beyond that, it seems to me that the most of the valid arguments fail. If

there were a book on each subject absolutely superior to all others, and if we had infallible officials to select these books, there could be no question; but with both these conditions unfulfilled, it seems to me that state uniformity is wrong in theory, as it is unsatisfactory, often abominable, in practice.

What are some of the arguments advanced in its favor? Many offer none, but simply cry "uniformity," as if that, in and for itself, were all that could be desired. There is a trait of human nature that leads us to have our barbers and tailors make us as nearly like everybody else as possible, that causes us to join a society because it has a large membership, that makes us want to fall in with the passing procession if it is a long one. It is not worth while to quarrel much with human nature; yet when the question of adopting and enforcing a fashion in our schools arises, we may well inquire what positive advantages it offers, as well as what evils are associated with it.

Absolute uniformity in anything is very likely to mean uniform mediocrity. Communities, as well as individuals, differ, and we should not endeavor to remove all these differences, to reduce all inequalities to a common level. We have often been censured for treating the children *en masse* and not as individuals. Our school system has been called a machine that grinds all the individuality out of the children that are subjected to its routine course. While we know that these criticisms are unjust, we must admit that they contain a grain of truth, and that the more rigid—uniform, if you please—the system becomes, the more danger there is in this direction. Recognizing these individual characteristics of communities, it is not surprising that a book that is used with success in one place is sometimes a failure in another place hundreds of miles away, where the circumstances are entirely different. Again, many books that are perfectly satisfactory in city schools are not at all suitable for country schools having shorter terms and a more limited course of study. For this reason, the cities and larger towns often object to the adoption of a state series because they are satisfied with the books they already have in use and are unwilling to compromise with their country neighbors. Or if the city schools are working under special charters, we hear something like this testimony of the superintendent of a Western state: "It has been the additional misfortune of our common schools that they have been forced to use books by authority of law which none would prefer, while independent and special districts are at liberty to choose for their children the best and freshest in the market."

To proceed with the arguments for uniformity. Some say, in effect, that many of our teachers are not well prepared; that they know but one textbook on a subject, and can master no more; that in passing from one school to another, as such teachers often do, if they find a new series of books their efficiency is seriously impaired. Similarly, that the children of the migratory portion of our population are retarded in their intellectual advancement *by being obliged to learn new rules and definitions.* This reminds me

of the backwoods teacher's morning call of "Books, books;" or of the "Words, words, words," that were the substance of Prince Hamlet's reading. Are these all that our teachers know, all that their pupils learn? There is a shadow of something usually called the "New Education" that places ideas before and above words, principles above rules, and, if I am not mistaken, this new education is extending rapidly into every nook and corner of the land.

The argument last quoted would apply with equal if not greater force to national uniformity, for in the West at least there are fully as many removals from one state to another as from county to county. If the idea were fully carried out, it would also prevent any change after a series was adopted.

But the strongest point made, and the one most dwelt upon, is in relation to the matter of cost. The enormous profits of publishers and booksellers, the burdensome expense of books to the ordinary family, and the still greater expense to the migratory one, are shown. Columns of figures are offered to prove how many thousands of dollars would be saved to the people of the state by fixing the price of books in some way, either by purchasing from the lowest bidder, or by making the state a publisher of school-books. These are the arguments that convince state legislatures and reconcile the people to the wholesale changes that follow the introduction of the new system. I need not remind you how disappointing the results have often been; how the people have found the financial burden just as heavy; or if the cost was reduced, how they have sometimes learned by sad experience that a low price is not the only good quality that a school-book should possess.

But even granting that a uniform system of text-books is desirable, there are many evils inseparably connected with the practical workings of the system under either of the three methods proposed, viz., the state decree, the state contract, or state publication.

In the first place, the members of the state board of education, or of text-book commissions however constituted, are usually men whose time is fully occupied with official and private duties. They are not as a rule directly connected with the work of the common schools. They are therefore frequently unable to make the best selections, and books that have been adopted with the greatest confidence in their merits have been found very defective when practically tested in the school-room.

Again, the power to decide what books shall be used by every child in the state, to give some publishing house or dealer a monopoly of the school trade, is too great a power to place in the hands of any board or commission. There are many men whose opinions and decisions cannot be bought, and there are publishing houses who would scorn to use any unfair means to secure a place for their books; but it is far better not to expose either party to such a temptation. The record of the past in many states will testify to the danger in this direction. It is true that local boards are exposed in a slight degree to the *same corrupting influences*, and that they are often not

at all qualified to judge of the relative merits of books; but they are nearer to the people, and directly responsible to them; they have, or ought to have, a deep personal interest in the schools under their care; they are in close relations with the teachers, upon whose judgment they generally rely in such matters; and if a mistake is made, the evil results are purely local.

A simple decree, by the legislature or some central board, that a certain series of books shall be used throughout the state, is not very effective, because it is not easily enforced. This plan does not insure or promise the low prices that should be expected in return for the monopoly created. It seems to be a one-sided bargain, subject to all the evils of the uniform system and offering but few advantages.

The state contract is perhaps still more exposed to corrupting influences. Under it the state purchases books for all the schools at low prices. These low prices are about the only redeeming feature of the contract plan, and they have often proved delusive. It is liable to cause the adoption of inferior books on the ground of cheapness. It makes the state a purchasing agent for the schools, which is in itself objectionable, and it creates a monopoly of the worst form.

State publication has not yet been tested for a sufficient length of time to offer definite results. A few suggestions and fundamental ideas may, however, be considered briefly.

It is not desirable for the state to enter the field as a publisher and manufacturer even on the ground of economy. There are many things of a public nature that a state ought to do, because it can do them better than private individuals can or will. But it seems to me that text-book publishing does not come under this category. No one will claim that the state will make better books than those issued by some private houses, nor that it can do the work more cheaply than they. As a rule, a first-class book is a thing of growth; it cannot be made to order in a few weeks or a month. Even the best book attainable will soon need revision, but if it is published and the plates are owned by the state there would naturally be a stronger tendency towards fixedness. Any proposed change or revision would be opposed or postponed on account of the expense. Too frequent and unnecessary changes are undoubtedly demoralizing, but changes should not be so difficult as to retard progress. The solution of this problem, I believe, will be found in free text-books owned by the local boards. Where this plan has been adopted the question of uniformity is no longer discussed. Its advantages are that it secures absolute uniformity within the school, that it opens the doors of the schools to the very poor, and that it is the most economical method of supplying the children with books.

It secures uniformity. Whenever it is decided that a certain kind of book is needed, a sufficient supply for the whole school is purchased. There is no waiting until parents find it convenient or can afford to buy. All are *equally well supplied*, rich and poor alike. Many a child now remains out

of school until late in the term, or does not attend at all, because his parents really cannot afford to purchase the necessary books, or think that they cannot. With the books supplied, the school becomes indeed free.

It is the most economical. The books are bought in large quantities at wholesale or publishers' prices. Each book is used again and again until it is worn out. It is the general testimony that books owned by the school are better cared for and last longer than those belonging to the pupils. If books are adopted for a term of three or four years many of them would last through the entire time instead of being laid aside or destroyed after a few weeks' service, as is often the case when they are owned by the individuals.

Again, this plan gives a free field to private enterprise and competition. If an educator has written a book that he regards as superior to those in use, and has found a publisher, he has every opportunity to secure its adoption and have it tested. Or if a publisher is enterprising he can make his books artistic and attractive in appearance, assured that he will be rewarded by larger sales. This freedom of competition will insure progressively better and cheaper books.

I would insist, then, on these three things:

1st. That the selection of text-books should be left entirely in the hands of the local authorities.

2d. That when a book is once adopted it should not be changed in less than three or four years.

3d. That the books should be owned by the school and furnished free of expense to all pupils.

DISCUSSION.*

E. E. HIGBEE, OF PENNSYLVANIA: The theme of the paper under present discussion is, "Text-books, and legislation pertaining thereto."

Among the postulates upon which the discussion rests, are these, viz.: that text-books in some form are necessary to our schools, and that it is within the province of the state to fix a minimum course of studies, in order that no schools may suffer from the indifference or neglect of subordinate school officers.

First, then, is there any such lack of necessary text-books as to demand the intervention of state legislation to secure a proper supply; for, no doubt, should our communities be found destitute of such supply as would be necessary to keep up the established minimum course of studies, the state would feel itself obliged to initiate some action in way of relief.

Already, however, the intelligent commercial enterprise of our people

* Stenographer's report.

has given us an abundant supply of text-books. Indeed, the interest in education has been so widely felt, that the very best minds have been engaged in this work, and school-book publishing houses have been firmly established throughout the land; and it is a fact of which we are justly proud, that no country of the world can surpass our exhibit of text-books, as regards either contents or workmanship. It is a matter of complaint rather, that text-books of all kinds are too abundantly supplied, and are scattered about

"Thick as autumnal leaves that strew the brooks
Of Vallombrosa ;"

and on this very account, it is alleged that some legislation is needed to guard against too frequent changes, which add expense, and to secure state uniformity, the absence of which, it is supposed, dissipates or renders vague the educational work itself.

The legislation proposed, looking to this end, differs in different localities.

First. Some, assured that a uniformity of text-books can never render teaching less vague and more consistent, as it has no power to render uniform either teachers or communities, but on the contrary serves only to make school-work more mechanical and *routinish*, and less individual and free—yet, willing to take into account the element of expense—have thought it best that the children of the schools should be supplied with books by the directors free of all cost, which would obviate all expense growing out of change of residence from school to school, and at the same time keep the school-work free from the dangers and temptations of a uniformity determined by authority external to the directors and teachers themselves. Even this course, which has the full sanction of Massachusetts, and is allowed in Pennsylvania, has many serious objections. It weakens with parents, it is felt, that sense of responsibility for the culture of their children, so necessary to an intelligent family-life; it carries away from the household library the endeared treasures of well-conned childhood books; it dulls the feeling of ownership upon the part of the children themselves, which is felt ethically to have great educational value; it gives countenance to a neglect of the higher intellectual enterprise of the people, who, by being challenged to give only bread-and-butter support to their children, become indifferent to anything beyond; and it dulls sympathy with that wholesome American habit of business, which rightly allows to individuals and families and subordinate municipalities the utmost swing for free impulse and activity.

These objections may be somewhat overdrawn, yet they have had so much weight with us in Pennsylvania as to constrain us to leave the whole matter entirely optional with the directors themselves, who are best qualified to keep watch upon it within their own jurisdiction, and who are immediately accountable to the people.

Second. Some, so infatuated with the idea of uniformity, propose that the *state*, through some organized commission, shall settle upon a uniform series

of text-books for state or county use, and compel all directors to see that the schools are supplied with such series.

This is far more objectionable than the preceding. However such commission may be formed, it will from the very nature of the case be subject to the most urgent rivalry of competing publishers; and this concentrated upon a single body, elected or appointed, will bring into play all the tempting arts which the profits of so large a sale must inspire. "Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered."

Take for example the State of Pennsylvania, where we have a million of children enrolled in the public schools. The commission in this case would be called upon to establish a uniformity throughout a commonwealth made up of sections broadly distinguished from each other in their whole social economy, and requiring schools of equally wide divergence of treatment, unless miners, and Germans, and Scotch-Irish, and Quakers, and the yeomanry of our shadowy mountains and valleys, and the citizens of our most advanced and wealthiest cities, are to be treated to the same monotonous intellectual pabulum. What a Herculean task this would be! How absurdly unnecessary and vain the whole effort!

But suppose the attempt made. The profits of so large a sale of books, covering a whole state and amounting to thousands and tens of thousands of dollars, would bring upon the commission a terrible pressure, which, soon linking with itself politics as well as profits, would disorganize the whole work and necessitate the repeal of any such legislation, as in certain cases it has already done. Twice has the effort been made to carry such a measure through the Pennsylvania legislature, and twice, we are glad to say, it has been defeated.

Again: Some, convinced that the supply of text-books while under the control of large publishing houses is so monopolized that the cost to the parents becomes exorbitant and the gain to the publishers immense, have proposed legislation not simply in the interest of uniformity, but as against this unrighteous extortion of money from the people.

This legislation, proposed and in some few cases enacted, is, *that the state itself shall enter into the market, compile the books required, manufacture and publish them, fix the price thereof, and enforce their use in the schools.* In other words, the monopoly of competing publishing houses is to be overthrown by a legalized state monopoly, and a uniform cheap system of text-books be substituted in the place of the books now in use.

Viewed theoretically, this would be establishing a precedent which is at variance with the spirit of our government. Monopolies no doubt exist, and require most watchful care upon the part of all earnest statesmen. No manufactured article can well escape the danger of such monopolies in their efforts to control the market and increase the profits. It is claimed that in the manufacture of agricultural implements such a monopoly already exists. Grant that it does, *and that all agricultural industries with which the state*

is most intimately interested are made to suffer: shall the state, to throw off the incubus, itself enter the market, establish its own shops, gather its material, construct its various machines, fix the prices thereof, and enforce their use throughout its jurisdiction—establishing its depots of supplies, and its numerous agents of distribution, and its collectors and accountants? Is this the solution? Who can fail to answer—*No!* This would be the death-knell of our inventive genius. This would cripple all self-developing enterprise upon the part of the people, and tend to destroy the chief popular inducement to individual impulse and activity.

So, here, against the expense of text-books furnished by large and enterprising publishing houses which command the best skill in workmanship, and the best experience of learned men and professional teachers—and which are compelled by the very competition itself to keep fully abreast with the advance of our best schools in their various grades—the state proposes to enter the market, establish its own machinery, purchase its own material, gather its own workmen, make of itself in so far a vast publishing house for the schools, force its own wares upon teachers and directors and children, keep in depositories of supply an ever-increasing stock to meet all exigencies, demanding for all this quite an army of employés. In addition to this, also, the series which the state publishes is the *only* one to be used. All others are excluded. All competition, therefore, is at once set aside, except that most mischievous one, viz., the competition to overthrow the established series, with the hope that a new one may give others a chance at state patronage. When we bear in mind that the series must embrace studies in literature, language, music and drawing, philosophy, the whole range of history and mathematics, the natural sciences—as botany, chemistry, etc., as well as reading and writing, and spelling, what a task the state attempts to accomplish through a legislative commission, over against the very best talent and skill already engaged and carefully organized by the enterprise of the people in their enlightened and free use of powers the exercise of which is always the sure warrant of a high and advancing civilization! The theory of such action is to my mind grotesque, and without any sanction from either reason or history.

But, viewing it practically, what does such legislation involve? In the State of Pennsylvania we may safely say that \$2,500,000, probably more, are invested in public-school text-books now held by the parents or children, or school-boards. This, as so much personal or school property, must be sacrificed to give room for the state series, published under most adverse circumstances; for the making and printing of school-books require the skill and practice of long experience, which the state has not and cannot easily secure, and its series on this account will most likely be inferior, both in substance and workmanship, to those already in use, and more costly at the outset and afterwards, also; for the schools *must* be supplied, and the state *must have the stock on hand*, whatever may be the cost, or throw the job

into other hands, and thus give up the business. Every circumstance, therefore, unfavorable to business economy, surrounds such action. In several places, however, attempts have been made to secure legislation looking to the employment of convicts and prisoners to do the necessary manual labor, and thus lighten the state expense. No more effective method could be devised to throttle all ambition to skillful workmanship, to mock the just pride of a craft of men who delight to rival one another in this worthy industry, and to lower the standard of excellence now reached, which is acknowledged even by other countries as marvelously high.

We can gain but little information as yet by any observation of the results of such legislation, for the experiment has covered but a small range of text-books used in our schools. Yet enough has been done to warrant a comparison in point of substance, workmanship, and cost, between a state series and the old series which it would displace. But time forbids entering upon this subject, unless in the further discussion it becomes necessary. It must suffice to say that we feel confident that such comparison will only confirm what we have said, and we are quite prepared to take it up should any necessity demand it.

HOMER B. SPRAGUE, OF DAKOTA: The duty has been assigned me of discussing for ten minutes the able and interesting but radically unsound paper of the gentleman from Ohio, Supt. Stevenson. His position would be very strong, were it not very wrong. We differ, I fear, on fundamental principles. Underlying his argument, and cropping out more or less distinctly here and there, if I mistake not, is the old fallacy of a social contract as the foundation of society and of government—the doctrine that the natural condition of mankind is one of isolation and even of mutual antagonism; that society is an afterthought, a matter of choice, therefore artificial; that government, too, is a strictly human contrivance, springing from compact; its powers a bundle of concessions wrung from man's necessities; essentially restrictive, and needing to be watched and restricted in turn lest it encroach upon the reserved rights of individuals; never absolutely but only relatively good; a choice of evils, the lesser of two evils, at best a necessary evil, and therefore to be reduced to a minimum; or as the old maxim runs, "That government is best which governs least." This theory is forever saying to government, "*Laissez faire*," "Hands off!" Carried to its logical conclusion, it would abolish all public schools, except, possibly, for paupers.

Against this doctrine and the inferences our friend from Ohio seems to draw from it, I beg to protest. I think he starts wrong; that there never was any such antecedent condition of isolation or antagonism; that society is the natural and normal element into which man is born and in which he must live; that the state is society organized, an organism in which all essential parts are mutually helpful, not antagonistic, reciprocally means and ends; that government is the outgrowth of and for society, its divinely appointed *right hand and arm*, best when it most actively and efficiently

promotes the welfare of all. Accordingly I do not like our friend's continual antithesis of the individual and the state, the taxpayer and the state, the parent and the state, the family and the state, the people and the state, as when he says, "Free schools are schools receiving the support of the state only so far as the people cannot sustain them for themselves;" and again, "Both the individual and the state receive a benefit from the schools, and therefore each should share the burden;" and again, "The state has done its whole duty when it has done for the family what the family cannot do for itself."

All this, I submit, is misleading. The people *are* the state. The individual is an essential part of the government. At the very center of our American system, its most vital fact, is the principle that every man is a voter and every voter a ruler. Every year, in nearly every division and subdivision of the body politic, on a score of important questions, the will of the majority or plurality, by ballot, directly or indirectly, decides the issue, shapes the policy, makes the law. Every vote aids; a single ballot may determine. Business prosperity or adversity, financial success or ruin, light or heavy taxation, public honor or disgrace, individual comfort, ease, peace, convenience, health, reputation, liberty, life itself, may hang on the decision of the hour. I must not pause to illustrate this; but perhaps the majority of those who hear me may remember when the very existence of the nation trembled in the balance, and the scale was turned by a few votes deciding that the republic should not be split into fragments but be indissoluble forever; that it should be free, and not slave; that the war should be waged to the bitter end; and that hundreds of thousands of lives and thousands of millions of dollars were not too great a price to pay for the nation's life. The fact is, every town, county, city, state, the whole nation, is a vast business corporation, carrying on many kinds of business; every voter is a stockholder, a director; and woe to us and our children if he directs unwisely. The vote of John L. Sullivan counts just as much as that of George Washington; Sambo's offsets Solomon's! What community has not suffered from the action of foolish or unprincipled voters at the polls? Whose purse has not been depleted by taxation that was tantamount to sheer robbery? Whose cheek has not tingled with shame or indignation at the story of rabbles led to the polls, and perhaps paid for voting, by bosses and demagogues. Those familiar with the history of elections in San Francisco during the last five years know what I mean. Our dearest interests are at the mercy of the voting mob.

So it must be until mobs and rabbles cease. There is no power in these United States to disfranchise them. It is too late for that. It would be suicide or annihilation for any politician to propose it. Rightly or wrongly, the people must rule.

How shall they be made to rule rightly, is the question of questions, in *presence of which* the cost of text-books sinks into insignificance.

There is but one means—education. Make every voter intelligent, honest, patriotic, and the thing is done. But it must be no ordinary degree of intelligence, no scanty measure of honesty, no faint glow of patriotism. The keenest intellect to discern the right, the strongest grasp of sound principles, the broadest and most minute information, the loftiest integrity, the most genuine hatred of shams and false pretenses, the warmest, most unselfish love of country—these are indispensable elements in that education, thorough, many-sided, high-toned, which can fit a person “to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, public and private,” of citizenship,—the education, not of a few, but of the majority; not of the majority alone, but of every voter! *The high education of every child*—that must be the ideal!

In the complete realization of this ideal will be found the remedy or the antidote for every political and social evil we feel or fear. In proportion as we approach it, will be the measure of our political and social blessings. In proportion as we fall short of it, will be the degree of our political, social, and financial misfortunes.

Let us rise to the grandeur of this conception—the high education of every child! No philosopher may have formulated it, no statesman may have suggested it, no educator demanded it. Only the poet has sung it, or the prophet foretold it. But it is as certainly implied and infolded in the very heart of our government as the oak is in the acorn. The high education of every child! It is the American idea. It will soon be the American ideal. It will surely be realized by-and-by. How?

It must be by the public schools; not otherwise. The parent cannot impart what he does not possess. Parish schools, private schools, Sunday schools—these never did and never can receive and retain long enough the majority. The public schools can educate all. They were established for this very purpose. The first duty of every patriot is to draw into them all of school age who are not sufficiently instructed elsewhere. To this end, every barrier that excludes any worthy pupil should be broken down and swept away.

The cost of text-books is such a barrier, and a formidable one. It is demonstrable that in all probability hundreds of thousands are so excluded in the Northern states. Doubtless in the whole Republic there are a million parents utterly unable to pay the price of the books. To such, the school authorities virtually say, “Keep your children at work or at home; or, if you send them to school, buy these books, or else confess yourself a pauper, and then perhaps we will furnish them to your children as a charity.” They cannot pay the cost; they will not accept the charity; their children are not in school. By a refinement of cruelty, in some states attendance is made compulsory, but no provision made to spare the laceration of the feelings of the parent compelled to see his children reduced to paupers.

Thank God, *there is one state in which this odious and cruel and un-*

American distinction, which labels some school-books as an alms and publicly brands thousands of children as school paupers, no longer exists! It pleases our friend from Ohio to be facetious at the expense of Massachusetts. He tells us that in Massachusetts "every one loans what he has and borrows what he has not." Pray, what else should one loan or borrow? He tells us that a Massachusetts man borrowed a Bible. He forgot to tell us that the Massachusetts man returned it; for Massachusetts trains her children to the most scrupulous punctuality in returning what they borrow. He forgot also to tell us that Massachusetts can borrow on the lowest rate of interest in any market in the world, because she always pays her debts in letter and in spirit. Sir, when I first "struck" Ohio, many years ago, I bought in Cincinnati Renan's *Life of Jesus*, then just issued from the press. In less than two hours it was stolen from me by an Ohio man. I did not, however, impute the theft to the influence of the school system of Ohio, after the logic of our Ohio friend. I thought it a clear case of piety run mad!

He tells us "It is the pride of Massachusetts to be in advance of her sister states. She is nothing if not radical." Sir, these sneers come with an ill grace from any lover of education, or of his country. But "many a true word is spoken in jest." Massachusetts, foremost in every good work, as when her earliest colony established religious liberty at Plymouth in 1620; or when she struck the first heavy blows for civil liberty at Lexington and Concord, and Bunker Hill, in 1775; or when, in 1861, from the brain of the Nation in the far northeast, in advance of her sister states, Massachusetts, Minerva-like, clad in complete steel, leaped into the arena at Baltimore and Washington in behalf of the freedom of the slave—Massachusetts still heads the column of progress, not for liberty alone, but for that education without which liberty cannot live! She it was that originated the American system of free schools, two and a-half centuries ago; that, two hundred and forty years ago, ordained that every town of one hundred householders should maintain a school in which youth could be prepared for the University at Cambridge; that established the first free high school, the first free normal school, the first free art school, the first library in every school district, the first instruction in drawing in every public school. And what's the result? With almost no natural resources; no mines of gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, or coal; no precious stones; no oil, nor gas; little fertile land; no navigable streams; yet by intelligence, industry, thrift, and integrity—virtues fostered in her public schools—she stands to-day, as she has stood for a hundred years past, in the very front rank of states as regards pecuniary wealth. And if you ask as to intellectual wealth, where in America will you find her equal? Where in the world her superior? Within her little limits are the birthplaces of Franklin, and Bancroft, and Bryant; the homes of Longfellow, and Lowell, and Whittier, and Holmes, and Emerson, and Agassiz, and Choate, and Everett, and Webster, and the Winthrops, and the Adamses, and Sumner, and Phillips, and Garrison, and Horace

THEME: THE RELATION OF THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM TO
LABOR OR WAGE-WORKING.

THE TRUE AMERICAN IDEA OF LABOR.

W. N. ACKLEY, WARREN, RHODE ISLAND.

The space this paper has a right to claim will suffer us to do scarcely more than define general principles. We are to consider labor from the standpoint of education and the American idea. This fact must somewhat narrow the limits of our discussion and shade and mould our line of thought.

The error has often been, perhaps, that we have sought to take labor and capital as isolated factors and as dead things; whereas they stand vitally related to society and life in their most varied aspects. *Capital* is more than money value and *labor* more than muscular activity. Every man in his personality is a capitalist; every man in his activity is a laborer. Moreover, labor is not the *end* but the means toward something better than itself. The ultimate purpose gives to toil its meaning. Even the getting of bread is but a means toward living, and living to the humblest may have a grand significance. We must study the man, then, and his relations—that is, society.

The words “toil” and “labor” have been so scandalized in the popular conception that men almost grow tired in the thinking of them. No less erroneous is the tendency to group certain uninviting branches of activity under the head of labor. But nature is broader in her teachings. Activity is the normal condition of all life, with the broadest scope for action in the highest realms. Assuming the literalness of the Bible account, work and responsibility were characteristic of the paradisaic condition. The man was to dress and keep the garden. Nature’s revelation in the life of child and animal is the same. Activity is the normal condition. Rising from the child’s instinctive desire for action, we touch the man’s higher thought of productiveness, as the end of action. Purpose now rules where instinct was the impulse. What pity that, when man rises from the low level of the child to this higher plane of thought, the idea of purpose in action should make him weary and he should frown upon a lot calling for intelligent exercise of power! Labor is distinguished from pastime chiefly in the thought. An excess of toil bringing the sting of weariness under feeble inspiration *may justly make the toiler sad*. But, inasmuch as activity is the normal

condition of all best life, I define toil as *that activity to which we go unwillingly*. Nature, however, is eloquent with her rebukes.

“Hark! how Creation’s deep, musical chorus,
Unintermitting, goes up to heaven!
Never the ocean wave falters in flowing;
Never the little seed stops in its growing;
.
.
.
Labor is glory! the flying cloud lightens;
Only the waving wing changes and brightens.”

But, as labor is a means of ministering to life, we must a moment study *life*, and *man*—the one who acts and who no less feels the results of the action. As educators, we must study the possible life we would see in the future, and seek to brighten that. True life is more than food, shelter, raiment. Joy, sweetness, satisfaction, are lawful and possible factors in it, independent, too, in a great degree, of large possessions. Power to subsist, even under exceptional conditions, is our narrowest conception of living. But we always subsist under social relations, so that no man can truly measure his condition as standing alone. After subsistence comes the thought of self-culture; then, happiness, as the crowning fact. “Life” is a great word. In its *fullness*, it is the inalienable wealth of every toiler, even as he wills it so to be. Is it not true that the most prosperous quarters of the world are those where society can reach its highest point of intellectual, moral and social excellence? But labor and activity are coincident with these. Life is composite, and the loftier its attainments the more varied its labors must be.

As our subject calls for a just estimate of the factors entering into life, so does it demand a true idea of the elements of manhood. Our workman is no mere machine. You cannot say the best word about labor till you have traced the bearing of the every-day toil upon the man’s manhood. How petty that conception of labor which sees in it only the pay that shall come as its market value. He who is not a toiler in a *true* sense cannot be a full-grown man. And a man is to be measured, socially, by his ability and desire to contribute to the well-being of society. Almost all our best possessions take their richness from the fact that we are linked to others by the social tie. Gold, fine homes, grand attainments, would mean but little if we dwelt alone. And, as labor is wealth to society, so is it to the toiler; not more in essential bread than in consciousness of his dignity as a substantial element in the fabric of humanity. A man is great, not by any fictitious rank of birth or preferment, but by his ability to do his part—to render some adequate equivalent in the transactions of life. The true man’s self-respect will forbid him to accept the bounty of society, offering nothing in return. No possible exaltation can exempt a man from his obligations to his fellows. Each one, however humble, who can contribute a feather’s weight of influence toward the *weal of society*, be it according to his ability, may more

deserve our regard than the titled prince. The power of society is in *its* spirit of mutual helpfulness.

"All are needed by each one :

Nothing is good or fair alone."

But we are thinking from the standpoint of Americans. As such must we emphasize the thought just presented. Nowhere else in the wide world do men's mutual relations, in theory at least, stand so well defined, is man so free to move. We are free and equal, not in ability indeed, but in the right to move easily among our fellows. American thought respects us as men, and pronounces us entitled to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The spirit in our fathers which could offer this three-fold richness to each and every man, and, as a *right* inalienable, puts man thus where he belongs, views him first as an individual, next as a member of society. This royal prerogative of individuality, which is a world's breadth from individualism, like all privileges, entails responsibility. The more a man stands out alone in our thought in the honor of our individuality, the larger demands may we make upon him. He is part of a social fabric where each factor is a conscious life. We are together here; we must be together here; and this simple fact carries with it half the philosophy of all our social problems. The one is essential to the other. Though nature has decreed that there shall be degrees of ability and wide diversity, yet, as in the richest fabric, each thread is essential to the general result, so every man is necessary to the best interests of society. Man is never great, then, for himself. The statesman has to thank his constituency for the possibility of statesmanship. We reach the loftiest conception of our greatness when our deepest satisfaction is found in our ability to aid the world. The true man will never use his power because it is power. Nature's story is a parable of what ought to characterize the true growth in social ideas. The age of monsters in animal life is fast passing away, yet life is thriving to-day after a finer fashion on the ashes of the old. So should the old, stern love of power, for its own sake, melt before the gentler but more intelligent spirit of sympathy and helpfulness. The true knightly spirit, befitting this hour, is always generous. A loyal desire to turn our power or wealth to good account, in part at least, for the weal of society, alone can give to either an essential value. Otherwise, the barren, lifeless mountains were richer than we all. Mere love of acquisition, without a noble purpose, is but an animal instinct. However poor in gold, each one of us has his personality to offer to the welfare of the world. Herein is the error of those who seek to aid the rank and file of humanity by degrading all to a common level. They are asking what they can get, not what they can give. There is no room for aspiration, because the movement is downwards, not upwards. The method is in conflict with the spirit of American thought. It neither emphasizes truly the individual, nor holds him to the responsibilities belonging to a true manhood. "*Responsibility*" is a fine word in the mouth of an American. It forgets that

as the law of cohesion has brought together into one great power the many states that form our nation, so society can be truly strong only in the *blending* of its various forces. In this way not seldom may great enterprises prove a boon to the large army of toilers, who thus may find the possibility of bread in the wide range offered to their labor.

But every theory of society has its limitations. Except for this the world would be simply one great work-field, with no restrictions upon the movements of the toilers. Man is too little to manage the whole of the world at once. The law grouping men into families, masses them into the greatly larger households of nations. The family has a duty to its own, and the walls that guard its members are not emblems of a narrow spirit. The nation, as the greater family, *must care for its own first*, and under the law of a right self-interest can justly name the limits of its hospitality. Society would become chaotic were riotous individualism to take the place of manly sense of individuality. So the American may be loyal to the terms of our national constitution, though insisting that the weal of the household shall be first in the thought of Americans.

Nowhere, it seems to me, in the wide world ought labor and capital—those two seemingly abstract things, but in reality vital forces, arrayed so often in violent antagonism—nowhere so easily as within this vast realm of the people, ought labor and capital to look benignly upon each other and find that harmony of relation which is their mutual strength. And this shall come most surely if, by any influence or teaching, we can make the men who stand for the *one* and the men who stand for the *other* see life and its grave import, see man in his true manhood of a princely responsibility, see the essential relation of man to man in society, and the obligations growing out of it—in a word, if the man who stands for labor and the man who stands for capital can be made to view these things from the standpoint of nature, and in the spirit of the true American idea.

It will be said, no doubt, that all these principles are familiar platitudes. But is nature going to change her laws because we have grown tired in looking at them? You cannot offer so bold an affront to any truth as when you name it a worn-out platitude. You cannot more honor truth than when you reiterate its terms and make its law the rule of your business policy. Under the inspiration of the truth the laborer should find deep satisfaction in the thought that, while he is earning his needed bread, he is contributing to the well-being of society; the capitalist should rejoice, not more in the fact of his acquisitions, than in the feeling that he is opening new avenues for the toilers to help themselves. The laborer whose mind has not been poisoned by the deceitful insinuations of friends, falsely so called, does not as a rule harbor jealous thoughts toward his fellow in society because he is richer than himself, but because he finds in him a narrow or supercilious spirit that insults his sense of manhood.

“*Fine manners are the mantle of fine minds.*” Benedictions will not be

wanting from the army of toilers for the manly man of even wide estates whose great heart and sympathetic spirit keep him close to the weal of men.

Our American institutions place man in the best possible condition for exercising the right of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," and, therefore, the true American idea of labor is that which is based on the *natural* and hence the *true* conception of activity as man's normal condition, of life in its complex aspects, of the essential qualities of manhood, of the mutual duties involved in the fact that man is a social being.

The laws which we discover are of small value, except as they lead to practical results. So, too, our plans of action will be worthy of our labors, only as they rest upon fundamental principles. This is a convention of those who have to do with the training of our youth. When one thinks of the numerous host of educators in this land and the still greater numbers committed to their care, the vision of the possibility for good to society is splendidly grand, while the thought of the commensurate responsibility sweeps in upon us! What word have we to say to the vast multitudes in our land, moved by varying purposes, toiling and struggling in

"The rage to live, which makes all living strife"?

I do not believe our popular education, as is sometimes charged, cultivates tastes which cannot be gratified because of the unequal distribution of wealth. If our youth have false ideas of labor, they are not fostered chiefly in the school-room. The child's conception of every-day life is gained more at home and in society than in the school. Still, the true teacher, with the teacher's right sympathy for humanity, will not forget that the teaching is to furnish the child for life, or that labor for the masses is the condition of life. As the guides of youth, we are not devising a temporary expedient, but building for a generation. We must, therefore, inculcate principles which are fundamental. Only by close contact with the actual life of the masses can the teacher learn how to say the powerful word about labor to our youth. There is no intellectual pedestal from which we can view human affairs from afar, as though these things were foreign to great minds. The poet, the philosopher, who isolates himself from the throbbing life of men, is a poor failure, is singing to us stories of life that are not true, saving in his dreams, or is tracing the laws of social life in a humanity that has no being. The rank and file of the world's toilers do not scold their fate because it means a life of toil, whatever they may think, but because they do not know how to get much out of little by carrying with them a buoyant and hopeful spirit. The proposition that humble toil is more honorable than distinguished beggary, because a man therein becomes a positive power and not a drag, is as simple to the child-mind as the mysteries of science. While in manual training we are wisely making the fingers skillful, the conviction should be lodged in the mind of the child that the deft use of the fingers in lawful toil is of the nature of manly conquest. While we are *teaching the youth under our charge the way to a more generous means of*

subsistence, it will be wise to school them in the fact that *untold wealth*, with a petty, narrow, grasping spirit, cannot raise a man above the condition of essential pauperism. It should be easy to tell the boy when historic names are in the thought, that he who floats to glory on some "tide in the affairs of men," "taken at the flood," is less a hero than the grimy toiler who simply does his best. The girl, dreaming of castles and splendor just a little on beyond, should be brought to see the nobler fact that the spirit of queenly womanhood is the ambition to be useful as well as to be easily pleased with what life can bring.

"Work without hope draws nectar in a sieve,
And hope without an object cannot live."

Finally, I believe, if we would bring to bear upon our youth the strongest influence possible and the influence most helpful to society in the long run with reference to the problem of labor, we must instill into their minds a genuine respect for their fellows, respect for men; not from any accidental condition, but because they carry a life; because life must exist, if at all, in close relation with other life; because, as a necessity of their condition, they are receiving from their fellows, and are in honor bound to give even as they receive; because, under this view, the laborer, while he gets his pay in coin for bread, may have the proud consciousness that he is giving, too, into the treasury of social life. The boy or girl is not well educated yet, who has not developed a wholesome respect for *work* in the large sense of willing activity with the purpose of helpfulness; and, most especially, an interest and sympathy for the great army of men and women who, under that mysterious necessity brooding over so large an area of human life, are

—"toiling for leave to live."

And, as for ourselves, as true Americans, we ought to look with a genuine and hearty respect upon the man who toils, help him to respect himself, count ourselves among the great army of laborers, with whatever powers we work; with loyal love for *this*, the best of all the great families of the earth, forbid the narrow spirit of feudalism to taint the free air of this western continent; seek to lift society to that inspiring conception of labor, —life in hopeful and helpful and willing action,—the only life worth living.

WHAT THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SHOULD TEACH THE AMERICAN LABORER.*

GEORGE H. HOWISON, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA.

Mr. President, and Fellow-Teachers: Or, as I would rather say, fellow-citizens; for the topic we concern ourselves with to-night certainly embraces our relations in this *political* regard, more directly than our relations simply

**Stenographer's report.*

as teachers; and we teachers in society are simply common citizens called upon by the state to perform a peculiar function in it—a function which we and all our fellow-citizens alike, I am sure, will heartily agree is one of the highest which the state has to have performed.

The exact question with which we are to deal to-night is not so much the mere idea of what the laborer is, as a part of society, but what the schools and the school system can do to elevate the laborer, if they can do anything. I find I have to depart in some slight degree from some of the points gone over in the admirable paper to which we have just listened. If I did not misunderstand the gentleman and the meaning of this paper, it is upon the proposition that we must regard the laborer as considered in this question simply as an instance of the general activity of human nature.

Now, it seems to me we shall not gain any final light as to what the schools can do to elevate the condition of the laborer, if we do not recognize that the laborer whom we mean in this question is different in a very vital manner from that self-activity which has characterized human nature. On the contrary, as I understand it, it is just precisely because the common laboring man has suffered from this high activity by the very conditions of his calling, that any question arises or can arise as to what is to be done for him and to elevate his condition. We would have to ask, what can be done for that man whose forces are so feeble that he cannot exercise, freely and fully, the natural self-activity proper to man? Now I take it, Mr. Ackley left out of sight the important fact that the condition of the common laborer is a condition diverse, by the very situation of the case, from the proper condition of a man. We therefore have the problem before us of how to reconcile this condition of his hand-to-hand fight with the brute forces of nature, with the higher destiny which we are assured is his, because he is and forever must remain A MAN.

With this slight correction, therefore, to begin with, let us ask what we can mean by the American idea of labor? Why should there be an American idea of labor? Is there, then, also a British idea of labor, a German idea of labor, an Italian idea of labor, a French idea of labor? And yet as unlikely as this condition may appear to us from such considerations as I have just suggested by these questions, I think we shall find on closer examination that there is an acceptance of the expression "The American idea of labor;" and we are asked to consider what is the true American idea of labor. This clearly implies that there is a false American idea of labor. This also is true, because the true American idea of labor comes from the true American idea of the state, while the false American idea of labor arises directly from the false American idea of the state; for I think, fellow-citizens, we are all well aware, are we not, that there is a bastard Americanism as well as a genuine.

Then let us ask ourselves what the true American idea may be. Whatever else we may say of it, whatever else the American idea may be or may

not be, surely this is true—that the American idea must be something compatible with the idea of the nation. The American idea is superficially called, of course, the idea of liberty, the idea of the rights of man, the idea of equality. But this, we shall discover presently, is a superficial conception of the subject. When we study the nature of this conception of unconditional equality, we shortly find that it is a notion radically at variance with the very notion of government itself. The American state is but a state, while the American nation is a nation. We have settled that question by blood on the battle-field; it can never, never, arise again. All our reasonings henceforth on these subjects of the states, all our theories about schools and the mode of conducting schools, all our theories about elevating the condition of the laboring citizens, must start from the premises that the United States is a nation and not simply a collection loosely gathered together in a confederation which has no sovereign authority over its members. We are face to face, therefore—perhaps unexpectedly, in this question presented to us of labor and education,—we are face to face with the very deepest problems of a social and political order, and we cannot answer this question with any intelligence except by holding fast to a deep and thorough rational conception of what the state is, and of what the American state is to do and must be, because it is a state.

I return then to the proposition that whatever else the American idea may be or may not be, it is necessarily something consistent with the idea of a nation. And what is that? It is the idea of individuals organized into a community by attachment to the land which they love as their country, and controlled by a sovereign which they acknowledge as supreme. There is one expression in connection with what seems to me to be the very deepest and the best part of the essay which has been read to us, which I am quite sure the author himself would re-state on second thought. It runs somewhat to this effect, as I gather it from the brief abstract of the paper which I have had the privilege of reading to-day, viz.: That equality of rights is not to be interpreted as an absolute equality of natural abilities, but it is to be interpreted as an equality in what he there strongly calls “The right of way.” It would seem, then, that we are bound to acknowledge a difference—that in gifts and in power men cannot be considered equal. It is manifestly true in respect to natural gifts that some are the superiors of others. This superiority must be felt as a ruling force in politics; and it certainly is the duty of all national organizations, whatsoever be the form of government, to set those who have superior judgment, superior power, and superior control at the head of affairs. I do not hesitate to assert that the government, or so-called government, that fails materially to secure this end—a government in which the weak, the inferior, elements come to the front and rise to the top—is, by that very fact, as a government, but half prosperous; its doom is sealed and written on the very structure.

Some perhaps might think that this expression which the author has given

as to the great responsibility of the individual, as an individual, in the American idea, is an aristocratic notion, and contrary to the American notion. But I am sure it is not so; and I am sure, however strange this proposition may sound to you when you first hear it, that upon sufficient reflection you will come to agree in thinking, as I suppose the author does, and as I surely do think, that aristocracy in this sense, aristocracy in the sense of a desire to put the best man at the front and at the control of power, is the very spirit of all government, and belongs to republicanism quite as effectually and truly as to any other form of government under the sun. It is only the bastard aristocracy which proposes to choose the best men by external and artificial methods, and claims that the family, as an external physical institution of mere brute measure, shall regulate the political order. That is what we really mean by a system of aristocracy in certain forms of government. But this truer aristocracy, I repeat, is the essence of government itself. It can be brought into power under certain conditions best by republicanism, and under certain others best by monarchy, under certain others best by a form of hereditary aristocracy itself.

Now the point at which I differ from my able friend in this connection, is this: the statement that although there is not equality of powers, not equality of gifts, not equality of character, there is equality in respect to "right of way." That, too, is a matter at variance with the essence of government. There is no equality in right of way. I hold on the contrary, that the best man has a prior right of way, and that it is the business of all good government to see that he secures it and executes his duty to the letter. Indeed this is a part of what I understand to be true Americanism. Nevertheless, so far we have not touched anything that is peculiarly and differentially the American idea. All that has been said thus far is that the American idea is in common with all other state ideas. Every one of them has this, in so far as it is a state at all. Is there any American idea? I answer, that we can say without fear of successful contradiction that there is an American idea of the state. What is it? It is not the commonplace notion of universal equality. And let us stop for an instant in order not to be misled, and not to be misinterpreted upon this last point. Let us understand that while the doctrine of absolute inequality is not any part of the true American idea, because it can be no part of any idea of the nation at all, let us stop to say that there still remains a profound sense of equality of rights. This does not mean that all men have just the same right. This does not mean that the man of humble and limited conception is, while he remains in this state, entitled to just the rights of the man of higher qualification. It does mean on the one hand that the humblest man has the same, eventually, before him as the highest man. All men are created equal in the sense that they are created for the same human idea, for the realization of the same reasonable and rational destiny. But the doctrine of equal *rights*, interpreted by any judicial or proper law-regarding criticism, is the

doctrine that all rights of whatsoever degree and of whatsoever differences in themselves are rights equally undeniable. Right of way offers a chance; as our great Lincoln said, a fair chance in the struggle for existence; and that is undoubtedly a universal right. But there is a vast difference, I take it, between universality and equality.

On the other hand, this undeniableness, absolute unquestionableness of condition as to right, however humble and limited that right may be, is the essential point in the true doctrine of equality of rights. The doctrine that all rights are undeniable, and that it is the business of the courts and the business of the governments to see that not the least one shall suffer harm; that is not necessarily the American doctrine, but it is the doctrine of every constitutional government—that is of every real government on the face of the earth, be it monarchy, aristocracy, republicanism, or autocracy.

What, then, is the peculiarity of the American idea? I answer, it is peculiar in two respects. It is, first of all, peculiar in regard to what we call representation as a principle in government, for I shall show you in a moment that all constitutional governments are representative. Nay, I go further, back of constitutional government to the simplest, earliest and crudest forms of government in history, and I assert that the essential principle of every one of them is the principle of representation, and that the way in which we really can distinguish forms of government is finding out the mode in which that representation, as we shall presently understand it, is accomplished.

Now the second peculiarity of the American idea, additional to this peculiarity in regard to its interpretation of representation, is this doctrine which it everywhere insists upon, of the inevitable and absolute responsibility of the individual. This is what the author means by saying that "The American idea asserts the import of the individual." In other words, it means that the citizen must save himself; and it teaches this wisely, for this American proposition that every one must be independent, that nobody must incumber the way, has a bearing not merely with respect to the rights of other citizens as contrasted with the one to whom the law is addressed, but it has a direct bearing with reference to the rights of the individual himself. It teaches us the profound truth that the whole liberty, the whole deliverance of the real person, is something that comes from within. Until that initial deliverance is affected, all the so-called forms of governmental activity, the so-called improvements in forms of government, are in that respect futile.

These, then, are the two principles that I understand distinguish the American idea of the state, and the American constitution in its principles, from all other forms of government that now exist.

Let us look for a single moment at the truth of the first. The truth of the second is so obvious that I suppose it is not necessary to enlarge on that at all; but I will add a single illustration of it. A genuine American

even of the lowest order—you can take it for an infallible sign—will never take a “tip.” He will never take a penny from a private person for performing a duty which he has agreed to perform, and for which he is paid.

Now this is a very slight incident, but it tells the whole story; it tells the doctrine as clearly as can be that it is the duty of every American citizen to see that his duty is executed, be the consequences what they may; to do his work and get out of the way so that others may do theirs.

But the other point perhaps needs a little illustration. With regard to the nature of representation itself, we are in the habit of thinking that we may set up somebody as a substitute or proxy for us, so that the wheel of the old machine shall simply register over again our thought. On the contrary, the very essence of representation lies in the fact of the selection of a superior personality. The whole contrivance of representative government everywhere rests on the doctrine that there is a divine principle of justice in affairs; that there are those to be governed, and that this principle must incarnate itself in a person. Wherever there is a governmental man, if he be a sultan or a king, if there be a dozen aristocrats, so called, that think themselves the spirit of law and justice, that feel it flowing in their souls and are guided by its impulses, there is a state and there is law. That is what representation means—that there are persons in all communities that feel this spirit. It is the business of electoral representation to see that those persons shall govern, by that peculiar form which will make all citizens perceive and recommend the idea. That is the grandeur, I take it, of our American system. Representation in America passes to the most conspicuous form. It moves from the humblest office of the elector in the town, through the functions of the town, from the functions of the town to the function higher in the county, from the higher functions of the county to the still higher functions of the state, and finally, from the functions of the state to the complete, the unified functions of the nation.

Here, therefore, we have a whole hierarchy. You notice the graduation of power, the graduations in the selections of those persons who are fitted by their character to represent in their persons the state. This is the feeling that should inspire us when we enter upon an election. Instead of supposing that the representative is simply to be a mouthpiece of his constituency and stand in a cringing position asking, “What will they think?” “For Heaven’s sake shall I vote this way or that?” “Shall I not lose my office?” should he not say, “There is reposed in me the high duty, the divine function of exercising my judgment to secure absolute justice”?

This I take it, fellow-citizens, is the true American idea; and I ask you what bearing it has on the notion of labor. What does this American idea say to the laborer? It says to him in the first place, Be a voter; interest yourself in the greatest things in this world that can concern the man.

It says to him in the second place, Do your work like a man. Accept the conditions of your place, understanding that they are conditions that grow

out of the very nature of man. It is true there is toil, it is true that brute natures stand as a foe to us in our higher state, and we have to struggle with them in order to realize the place where we may put in execution the real ideas of man—all this is true. But accept your state, don't whine, be a man, do your work. Be a man, do your work, clear the track, let every tub stand on its own bottom. That is the true idea; and not the foolish doctrine that all men are equally fit to perform the highest functions of government, which is a manifest absurdity. It is the idea that men are to do away with external methods. It is the idea that the governmental man is to go to the root of the matter, and that he is to be selected by reason of his divinely appointed calling, and by the divine gifts of his nature.

The American idea says this to the laboring man. It is very sobering, it takes down the conceit of all kinds of theocracy and the idea that all men should live in the same condition and the same social circle, where all will be equally accomplished. We all know, fellow-citizens, that that cannot be, not in all eternity—though immortality gives conditions for improvement far more wonderful than anything we see here, or that we possess now. Never, I say, through all eternity, can it possibly be that one star will not differ from another star in splendor. This is the divine order, and only in that divine order lies the principle of mutual help, depending on the recognition of the universality of the divine spark. This is the one great truth, of course, that gives democracy its hope. Notwithstanding, never let us forget for a moment that the American government is not a democracy, but it is a confederated republic with this wonderful principle and conception of higher and higher order of selected representative.

The work of the schools is to enforce this great lesson of citizenship and responsibility upon the laborer as upon all other citizens.

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, through printed reports, of the substance of the discussions and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration, and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require from the chairmen of its committees the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of their committees. It shall invite the freest discussion of the reports of its committees, and, whenever said reports are not so amended as to embody the new suggestions developed by such discussion, any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the Secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, through its president, with the aid of the chairmen of the several committees, an annual report to the National Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the Association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the Association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number, committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I.—MEMBERSHIP.

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected out of the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members—four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years; and the Council shall elect eight members—five members for six years, two for four years, and one for

two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five and the Council five members, each member, with the exceptions herein provided for (section 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in conjunction with the annual meetings of the Association. If the Board of Directors for any reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council, chosen by election, shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, be honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No State shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II.—FEES.

There shall be no fee for membership in the Council of Education. Any member of it shall secure a membership in the National Educational Association by becoming a life member of the same, or by paying to the treasurer of the Association the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place and time as the meeting of the National Association, and at least two days previous to the meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. The regular meeting of the committees shall take place on the day of the annual meeting of the Council. Meetings of committees may be called at any time by the chairmen of the respective committees, but attendance at special meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this article.

ARTICLE IV.—COMMITTEES.

The general management of the affairs of the Council shall be vested in an Executive Committee, composed of the President, Vice-President, and Secretary of the Council, and four other members, all of whom are to be elected by the Council at its annual meeting. There shall be twelve standing committees, each consisting of five members. They shall be appointed by the Executive Committee, and be organized as follows:

1. Committee on State School Systems.
2. Committee on City School Systems.
3. Committee on Higher Education.
4. Committee on Secondary Education.
5. Committee on Elementary Education.
6. Committee on Normal Education.
7. Committee on Technological Education.
8. Committee on Pedagogics.

9. Committee on Education of Girls.
10. Committee on Hygiene in Education.
11. Committee on Educational Literature.
12. Committee on Educational Statistics.

ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF COMMITTEES.

The Committees of the Council shall consider the topics assigned to them, and report on the same; they may select for their deliberations such other questions belonging to their departments as they deem proper to discuss.

Whenever called upon, the Committees shall continue the deliberative work of the Association on topics assigned to them, or prepare questions to be submitted to that body.

ARTICLE VI.—DUTIES OF MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The members of the Council shall render active service and assistance in the work of the Committee to which they have been assigned, and further the general work of the Council as much as is in their power. They shall give their attention to the questions submitted to them, and communicate their conclusions in writing to the Chairman of the Committee.

ARTICLE VII.—DUTIES OF THE CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES.

The Chairman of each Committee shall communicate the questions which are to be discussed to each of the members of his Committee, and send them such other communications as may assist them in their work. He shall arrange a suitable plan for an exchange of opinion, and embody the conclusions arrived at in a brief report. He shall, from time to time, inform the Secretary of the Council of the progress made by his Committee. He shall, with the consent of the other members of his Committee, arrange special meetings at a convenient time and place. He shall see that the communications, sent in turn to each member of his Committee, are promptly forwarded. He shall state distinctly (in the form of questions, when feasible) the topics on which he desires to have a brief expression of opinion from the members of his Committee, and embody the substance of their answers in his report.

ARTICLE VIII.—THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEES.

The work of the Committees of the Council shall be carried on in the regular meetings provided for above, and in such special meetings as can be arranged from time to time, according to the pleasure of the Committee, and principally, in writing, by an exchange of briefly-expressed opinions. It shall be the duty of each Chairman to devise a plan for the latter. Each member may be required to report on a part of the subject; or the whole topic may be submitted to each member, together with the opinion of the other members that have considered the topic before.

ARTICLE IX.—DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL.

It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general. The Council shall assign work to each Committee, and receive a report on the same; it shall cause to be published such reports of Committees, or parts of the same, as in its judgment should be brought to general notice; it shall present, through the President of the Council, an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE X.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended, at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived, at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

By-Laws, not in violation of this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

By-Laws.

- 1. Each active member of the Council shall pay annually three dollars, to defray the expenses of the Council.
- 2. The Secretary shall act as Treasurer of the Council.

OFFICERS FOR 1888-89.

President—JOSIAH L. PICKARD, Iowa City, Iowa.
Vice-President—WILLIAM T. HARRIS, Concord, Mass.
Secretary and Treasurer—MARY E. NICHOLSON, Indianapolis, Ind.
Executive Committee—The President, Vice-President, Secretary, and S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.; J. H. Baker, Denver, Colo.; Joseph Baldwin, Huntsville, Texas.

MEMBERS.

NOTE.—The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is in the class elected by the Association; the letter "C," by the Council.

<i>Term expires.</i>		<i>Term expires.</i>	
R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, O....	A 1889	E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.....	C 1890
John Eaton, Marietta, O.....	A 1889	John Swett, San Francisco, Cal....	C 1890
Lillie J. Martin, Indianapolis, Ind..	A 1889	J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.....	C 1890
Jno. M. Ordway, New Orleans, La...	A 1889		
L. S. Thompson, Lafayette, Ind....	A 1889	Wm. T. Harris, Concord, Mass....	A 1891
Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill....	C 1889	S. S. Parr, Greencastle, Ind.....	A 1891
Geo. H. Howison, Berkeley, Cal....	C 1889	David N. Camp, New Britain, Ct...	A 1891
H. M. James, Omaha, Neb.....	C 1889	Geo. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kas..	A 1891
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, O....	C 1889	Robert Allyn, Carbondale, Ill.....	A 1891
Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa...	C 1889	J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa....	C 1891
		John W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass..	C 1891
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.....	A 1890	C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo....	C 1891
Andrew J. Rickoff, New York, N.Y..	A 1890	N. H. R. Dawson, Washington, D.C..	C 1891
Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater,		W. N. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind....	C 1891
Mass.....	A 1890		
George Howland, Chicago, Ill....	A 1890	John Hancock, Chillicothe, O.....	A 1892
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind....	A 1890	F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo....	A 1892
Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass....	C 1890	N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y....	A 1892
H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I....	C 1890	J. Baldwin, Huntsville, Texas....	A 1892

James H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kas. A 1892	D. H. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn. C 1893
J. B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O. C 1892	Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis,
Ira G. Hoitt, Sacramento, Cal. C 1892	Ind C 1893
Emerson E. White, Cincinnati, O. C 1892	
B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich. C 1892	C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H. A 1894
N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill. C 1892	H. S. Jones, Erie, Pa. A 1894
	Z. Richards, Washington, D. C. A 1894
Thos. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass. A 1893	James H. Baker, Denver, Col. A 1894
F. A. Fitzpatrick, Leavenworth,	Thos. J. Morgan, Providence, R. I. . . . A 1894
Kas. A 1893	Aaron Gove, Denver, Col. C 1894
W. N. Barringer, Newark, N. J. A 1893	Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass. C 1894
E. E. Higbee, Lancaster, Penn. A 1893	James H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y. . . . C 1894
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo. . . . A 1893	Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn. . . . C 1894
Wm. A. Mowry, Boston, Mass. C 1893	Homer B. Sprague, Grand Forks,
S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill. C 1893	Dakota. C 1894
Nathan C. Schaeffer, Kutztown, Pa., C 1893	

HONORARY MEMBERS.

I. W. Andrews,* 1888.	Albert P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.	F. A. March, Easton, Pa.
Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.	Thomas J. Morgan, Providence, R. I.
Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y.	Lemuel Moss, Chicago, Ill.
Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.	M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.
W. H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.	B. G. Northrop, Clinton, Conn.
A. L. Chapin, Beloit, Wis.	Edward Olney,* 1886.
Matilda S. Cooper, Nyack, N. Y.	Gustavus J. Orr,* 1888.
William J. Corthell, Gorham, Me.	F. W. Parker, Normalville, Ill.
J. L. M. Curry, Richmond, Va.	W. H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.	W. F. Phelps, Winona, Minn.
Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.	J. D. Philbrick,* 1885.
W. W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.	William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
D. C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.	H. E. Shepard, Charleston, S. C.
S. S. Green,* 1883.	E. A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
J. C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.	J. H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind.
John M. Gregory, Washington, D. C.	T. B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.
G. Stanley Hall, Baltimore, Md.	Grace C. Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
W. D. Henkel,* 1882.	E. T. Tappan, Gambier, O.
Thomas Hunter, New York, N. Y.	C. O. Thompson,* 1885.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.	H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
E. J. James, Philadelphia, Pa.	S. R. Thompson, New Wilmington, Pa.
E. S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.	Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingston, Ala.
Merrick Lyon, Providence, R. I.	James P. Wickersham, Lancaster, Pa.
James McCosh, Princeton, N. J.	J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
J. H. MacAlister, Philadelphia, Pa.	

*Deceased.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

The Committees from whom reports are due in 1889 are Nos. I, IV, VI, VIII, X and XII. The topics already reported on will be found in italics, with the year of the report in brackets.

The Chairman of each of the above Committees is expected to organize his Committee at once, to select a subject, and notify the Secretary, Mary E. Nicholson, 232 Broadway, Indianapolis, Ind., as early as February 1st, 1889.

I. On State School Systems.—
SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Organization* (1883); (2) *Supervision* (1885); (3) *Licensure of Teachers*; (4) *School Revenues*; (5) *Compulsory Education*; (6) *Tenure of Office of Teachers* (1887).

E. E. Higbee, Lancaster, Pa., *Chairman*.

J. W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.

D. H. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.

I. G. Hoitt, Sacramento, Cal.

Joseph Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.

II. On City School Systems.—
SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Organization*; (2) *Supervision* (1884); (3) *Superintendency*; (4) *Qualification of Teachers*; (5) *Classification of Pupils* (1886); (6) *Ungraded Schools*; (7) *Business Side of City School Systems* (1888); this report is to be presented for discussion in 1889.

B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich., *Ch'n*.

Aaron Gove, Denver, Col.

H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.

Geo. Howland, Chicago, Ill.

W. H. Barringer, Newark, N. J.

III. On Higher Education.— SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Higher Institutions Required* (1886); (2) *Harmonizing of Higher, Secondary, and Elementary Schools* (1882); (3) *Admission to College* (1884); (4) *Elective System* (1888); (5) *College Government*; (6) *What Should Precede the University?*

J. H. Canfield, Lawrence, Kan., *Ch'n*.

Geo. H. Howison, Berkeley, Cal.

Homer B. Sprague, Grand Forks, Dak.

J. L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.

Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn.

IV. On Secondary Education.—
SUB-TOPICS: (1) *High Schools* (1882); (2) *Academies* (1885); (3) *Preparatory Schools* (1884 and 1887); (4) *Business Colleges*; (5) *Manual-Training Schools*; (6) *Schools by Correspondence*; (7) *Rational Selection and*

Order of High-School Studies with Reference to Admission to College.

J. H. Baker, Denver, Col., *Chairman*.

H. S. Jones, Erie, Pa.

W. A. Mowry, Boston, Mass.

Lillie J. Martin, Indianapolis, Ind.

H. M. James, Omaha, Neb.

V. On Elementary Education.—
SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Courses of Study* (1882); (2) *Oral Teaching* (1884); (3) *Length of Sessions*; (4) *Manual Training*; (5) *Kindergarten*; (6) *Text-Books* (1886).

N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y., *Ch'n*.

J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.

R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, O.

Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.

N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.

VI. On Normal Education.— SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Kind of Normal Schools Required*; (2) *Academical and Professional Training* (1883); (3) *Practice Departments* (1885); (4) *City Normal Schools*; (5) *Teachers' Institutes* (1887); (6) *Chairs of Pedagogics in Colleges*.

D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass., *Chairman*.

Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.

F. A. Fitzpatrick, Leavenworth, Kan.

Robert Allyn, Carbondale, Ill.

Thos. J. Morgan, Providence, R. I.

VII. On Technical Education.—
SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Technical Training in Public Schools* (1881); (2) *Preparation for Institutes of Technology*; (3) *Pedagogical Value of School Workshops* (1886); (4) *Professional Function of Polytechnic Schools*; (5) *Agricultural Colleges* (1888); (6) *Summer Schools of Science*.

E. E. White, Cincinnati, O., *Chairman*.

S. H. Peabody, Champaign, Ill.

Geo. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan.

J. M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.

C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.

VIII. On Pedagogics.—SUB-TOPICS:

(1) *Chairs of Pedagogy in Colleges* (1882);
 (2) *Pedagogy as a Science* (1884); (3) *Pedagogical Inquiry*; (4) *Function of Public School* (1886 and 1887); (5) *Moral Education*; (6) *Pedagogical Terminology*.

Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill., *Ch'n.*

N. C. Schaeffer, Kutztown, Pa.

J. H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y.

W. T. Harris, Concord, Mass.

S. S. Parr, Greencastle, Ind.

IX. On Education of Girls.—SUB-

TOPICS: (1) *Co-education* (1883); (2) *Mixed Elementary and Secondary Schools*; (3) *Colleges for Women*; (4) *Technical Training for Girls* (1886); (5) *Professional Life for Women*; (6) *Training for Domestic Life*; (7) *What Education is Best* (1888).

John Hancock, Chillicothe, O., *Ch'n.*

A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.

W. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa.

J. S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind.

Delia L. Williams, Delaware, O.

X. On Hygiene in Education.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools* (1883); (2) *Recesses* (1884 and 1885); (3) *Indoor Exercises*; (4) *Heating and Ventilation*; (5) *Lighting*; (6) *Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health* (1887).

W. N. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind., *Ch'n.*

T. W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.

C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.

John Swett, San Francisco, Cal.

John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O.

XI. On Educational Literature.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) *School Reports* (1885); (2) *Books on Pedagogy* (1888); (3) *Periodical Literature*; (4) *Use of Reference Libraries*; (5) *Use of General Libraries* (1887); (6) *Study of Literature in Schools*.

W. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass., *Ch'n.*

F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.

E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.

A. J. Rickoff, New York, N. Y.

E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.

XII. On Educational Statistics.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Reforms in Statistics* (1885 and 1887); (2) *What Statistics Should be Collected*; (3) *Uniformity in Nomenclature*; (4) *International Comparisons*; (5) *Bureau of Statistics*; (6) *School Age—Can Uniformity be Secured*; (7) *U. S. Census of Educational Statistics*.

J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo., *Ch'n.*

John Eaton, Marietta, O.

N. H. R. Dawson, Washington, D. C.

D. N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.

L. S. Thompson, Lafayette, Ind.

REPORT OF SECRETARY.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, July 13, 1888.

Opening Session.

The National Council of Education was called to order by the President, J. L. Pickard, at 9:30 A. M.

In the absence of the Secretary, the President called upon Mary E. Nicholson, of the Executive Committee, to act as temporary Secretary.

The members who were present joined with the President in the Lord's Prayer.

In his opening remarks the President referred to the death of Israel W. Andrews, a member of the Council, and announced that a memorial would be presented later in the sessions.

On motion of S. H. Peabody, it was ordered that the usual committees be appointed by the chair.

Letters to the President giving reasons for absence were received from W. N. Hailmann, Geo. P. Brown, Daniel B. Hagar, John Eaton, Jas. H. Smart, C. C. Rounds, E. E. White, D. N. Camp, E. W. Coy, B. A. Hinsdale.

The President announced as Committee on Membership, S. H. Peabody, W. T. Harris, J. Baldwin.

James H. Baker was requested by the President to report discussions for the morning.

S. H. Peabody, chairman of the Committee on Higher Education, read a report from that committee on "The Elective System in Colleges."

Messrs. Harris, Gove, Canfield, Sheldon, King, Schaeffer, Thompson, Fitzpatrick, and Greenwood, took part in the discussion of this report.

On motion, it was voted to refer the report to the committee for further consideration and possible alteration, report to be made at a future session of the Council.

The President announced as Committee on Nomination of Officers, W. E. Sheldon, J. M. Greenwood, J. H. Baker.

Members present at the opening session were J. H. Baker, W. E. Sheldon, L. S. Thompson, W. T. Harris, J. L. Pickard, J. Baldwin, F. A. Fitzpatrick, S. H. Peabody, M. E. Nicholson, W. F. King, G. T. Fairchild, A. Gove, J. H. Canfield, N. C. Schaeffer, H. M. James, Z. Richards, J. M. Greenwood.

Adjourned to 3 P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Council was called to order by the President, at 3 P. M.

The Committee on Membership made the following partial report:

The Committee on Membership respectfully reports the following nominations to fill vacancies, and asks leave to make further report at a later stage of the session:

John Swett, of California, *vice* Miss Sarah E. Doyle, who has declined to serve; C. M. Woodward, of Missouri, *vice* W. H. Payne; N. H. R. Dawson, of Alabama, *vice* Thomas Hunter; S. S. Parr, of Indiana, *vice* Jas. H. Smart; Ira G. Hoitt, of California, *vice* W. I. Corthell; G. H. Howison, of California, *vice* I. Andrews.

Respectfully submitted.

S. H. PEABODY,

WM. T. HARRIS,

JOSEPH BALDWIN,

Committee.

On motion, it was voted to accept the report of the committee. The President invited the newly elected members to take part in discussions.

Geo. T. Fairchild was appointed by the Chair to report discussions for the afternoon.

N. C. Schaeffer, from the Committee on Educational Literature, presented a report upon "Books on Pedagogy."

The discussion of this report was participated in by Messrs. Greenwood, Schaeffer, Gove, Sheldon, Soldan, Fitzpatrick, Parr, Harris, Richards and Thompson.

On motion, it was ordered that this report be referred back to the committee for further consideration.

In addition to those present at the morning session there were present F. L. Soldan and H. S. Jones.

The Council adjourned to 9:30 A. M., July 14.

SECOND DAY.—JULY 14.

Morning Session.

The Council was called to order by the President, at 9:30 A. M.

Prayer was offered by Geo. T. Fairchild.

On motion, it was voted that the acting Secretary continue to serve until the election of a successor to E. W. Coy.

The minutes of the previous day were read and approved.

The Chair appointed as committee to audit the Treasurer's accounts for the last year: A. Gove, H. M. James, L. S. Thompson.

J. H. Baker read his report of the discussion of the paper on the "Elective System in Colleges."

G. T. Fairchild read his report of the discussion of the paper on "Books on Pedagogy."

By vote of the Council, both reports of discussions were accepted.

W. F. King, of the Committee on Education of Girls, read a report prepared by the chairman of the committee, M. L. Cooper, on "What is Best, and How Secured?"

In the discussion of this report, Messrs. Harris, Sheldon, Parr, Thompson, Greenwood, King, Woodward, Soldan, Canfield, and Miss Nicholson, took part.

The discussion was reported by H. M. James.

Following the discussion, it was moved and carried, that the report be referred to the committee.

Members present during the session were: W. T. Harris, L. S. Thompson, W. F. King, S. H. Peabody, S. S. Parr, J. M. Greenwood, A. Gove, W. E. Sheldon, J. L. Pickard, F. L. Soldan, M. E. Nicholson, N. C. Schaeffer, H. S. Jones, J. Baldwin, J. H. Baker, G. T. Fairchild, H. M. James, J. Swett, Z. Richards, C. M. Woodward, J. H. Canfield, F. A. Fitzpatrick.

Adjourned to 3 P. M. of same day.

Afternoon Session.

Council called to order at 3 P. M.

The committee appointed to audit the Treasurer's accounts made the following report:

Your Auditing Committee report the examination of the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer for the year closing June, 1888. They find the same to be correct, with a balance of \$81.87 in the treasury. Respectfully submitted.

AARON GOVE,
H. M. JAMES,
L. S. THOMPSON,
Committee.

The report from the Committee on Technical Education was made by G. T. Fairchild, on "Agricultural Schools: Their Objects, Methods, and Equipments."

In the discussion of this report Messrs. Greenwood, Harris, Fairchild, Hancock, Sheldon, Canfield, Peabody, Pickard, Thompson, and King, took part.

The report of this discussion was made by John Hancock.

Upon motion, it was ordered that Mr. Fairchild's report be accepted, and printed in the proceedings of the Council.

Members present not present at the morning session were: John Hancock, E. C. Hewett.

Adjourned to 9:30 A. M., July 16.

THIRD DAY.—JULY 16, 1888.

Morning Session.

The Council was called to order by the President, at 9:30 A. M.

Prayer was offered by N. C. Schaeffer.

The report of the discussion on the report presented at a preceding meeting by the Committee on the Education of Girls, was read by H. M. James, and approved by the Council.

The President announced that the Council had a distinguished visitor in Pundita Ramabai, of India, a woman greatly interested in the education of girls in her own country.

By invitation of the Council, she gave a short account of the condition and educational needs of girls in India.

John Hancock read his report of the discussion upon the paper on "Agricultural Schools: Their Objects, Methods, and Equipments." The report was approved.

Zalmon Richards, of the Committee on Elementary Education, read a report prepared by the chairman of that committee, J. W. Stearns, on "Waste in Education."

Messrs. Parr, Hancock, Baker, Greenwood, Sheldon, Baldwin, Harris, Soldan, Jones and Richards, took part in the discussion, which was reported by F. A. Fitzpatrick.

Upon motion, the Council voted to adopt the report of the committee, and print it in the proceedings of the Council.

There were present at this session: W. T. Harris, F. A. Fitzpatrick, L. S. Thompson, Z. Richards, G. T. Fairchild, J. Swett, J. M. Greenwood, H. M. James, J. H. Baker, N. C. Schaeffer, H. S. Jones, S. S. Parr, W. E. Sheldon, J. L. Pickard, M. E. Nicholson, S. H. Peabody, F. L. Soldan, R. S. Stevenson, J. Hancock, J. Baldwin, W. F. King, A. Gove, E. E. Higbee.

Adjourned to 3 P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Council was called to order at 3 P. M.

The committee on nomination of officers made the following report:

For President—J. L. Pickard, of Iowa.

For Vice-President—W. T. Harris, of Massachusetts.

For Secretary and Treasurer—Mary E. Nicholson, of Indiana.

For Members of the Executive Committee—S. H. Peabody, of Illinois; Joseph Baldwin, of Texas; and James H. Baker, of Colorado.

W. E. SHELDON,
J. M. GREENWOOD,
JAS. H. BAKER,

Committee.

By vote of the Council, the report of the committee was adopted.

On motion of W. E. Sheldon, it was voted that the report on "The Elective System in Colleges" be printed in the proceedings.

It was further ordered, that the report from the Committee on Educational

Literature, and the report from the Committee on Education of Girls, be referred to the Executive Committee for action.

By request of the President, W. E. Sheldon read a memorial of Israel W. Andrews, prepared by his successor in the presidency of Marietta College, John Eaton.

John Hancock spoke of Mr. Andrews as a man of unusual modesty, who had a clear head, a warm heart, and the courage of his convictions.

W. E. Sheldon added that the last paper prepared by Mr. Andrews deserved special mention. It was a history of the "Ordinance of 1787," and was read at the last meeting of the general Association.

Zalmon Richards spoke from a personal acquaintance with Mr. Andrews, extending over a period of fifty years.

W. T. Harris moved that the memorial be spread upon the minutes of the Council. This was ordered by a rising vote.

The Committee on Membership begged leave to withdraw its previous report and offer the following completed report:

To the National Council of Education—GENTLEMEN: Your committee appointed to nominate persons to fill vacancies in the Council, begs leave to submit the following report:

The term of membership of the following-named members expires, by limitation, with the present session of the Council, viz.:

1. C. C. Rounds, H. S. Jones, T. B. Stockwell, Zalmon Richards and James H. Baker. These vacancies are to be filled by the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association.

2. Aaron Gove, W. E. Sheldon, James H. Hoose, Mary S. Cooper and A. L. Chapin. These vacancies are to be filled by the Council.

3. The following vacancies, caused for reasons assigned, are also to be filled by the Council:

Miss Sarah E. Doyle has declined to accept membership; I. W. Andrews has died. The membership of G. Stanley Hall, James H. Smart, Merrick Lyon, Thomas Hunter, W. H. Payne, and W. J. Corthell, has been terminated by absence from the annual meetings of 1886 and 1887.

Your committee respectfully nominates the following persons to fill the vacancies above specified:

To be members of the Council for the term of six years ending in 1894: Aaron Gove, of Colorado; William E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts; James H. Hoose, of New York; Miss Clara Conway, of Tennessee; Homer B. Sprague, of Dakota.

To fill vacancies in terms which will expire in 1892: Newton C. Dougherty, of Illinois; Ira G. Hoitt, of California.

To fill vacancies in terms which will expire in 1891: S. S. Parr, of Indiana; Calvin M. Woodward, of Missouri; N. H. R. Dawson, of Alabama.

To fill vacancy in term which will expire in 1890: John Swett, of California.

To fill vacancies in terms which will expire in 1889: Miss Lillie J. Martin, of Indiana; George H. Howison, of California.

Your committee also recommends that the list of honorary members shall hereafter contain, properly distinguished by stars, the names of all persons who have died during their terms of service as members of this Council.

All which is respectfully submitted.

SELIM H. PEABODY,

W. T. HARRIS,

Committee.

By vote, the recommendation of the committee was adopted.

John Hancock gave notice that at the next meeting of the Association he would move that this Council take more definite action upon the matter of reports.

J. H. Baker asked why abstracts might not be distributed earlier, in order that the discussions be more fruitful.

The report from the Committee on City Schools, prepared by B. A. Hinsdale, having for its subject, "The Business Side of City School Systems," was read by H. M. James.

By request of the President, R. W. Stevenson reported the discussion of this paper, in which Messrs. Baker, Jones, Hancock, Higbee, Fitzpatrick, Sheldon, James, Richards, Harris and Greenwood, took part.

W. T. Harris moved that the report be printed, but not adopted; that the discussion of it be carried over into next year; and that the Chair make a place for it as a special topic in the next session of the Council. Adopted.

Present in addition to those at the morning session, Geo. H. Howison.

The President, thanking the members for their coöperation, and congratulating them on the success of the meeting, declared the Council adjourned.

MARY E. NICHOLSON, *Secretary*.

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE.

Presence at one or more of the daily sessions of the annual meetings, is indicated by a *p*.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>1887.</i>	<i>1888.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>1887.</i>	<i>1888.</i>
R. Allyn,	p.		G. Howland,		
W. N. Barringer,			J. S. Irwin,	p.	
J. H. Baker,	p.	p.	H. M. James,	p.	p.
J. Baldwin,	p.	p.	H. S. Jones,	p.	p.
T. W. Bicknell,	p.		D. H. Kiehle,	p.	
S. G. Boyden,			W. F. King,	p.	p.
G. P. Brown,	p.		L. J. Martin,		p.
H. A. Calkins,	p.		W. A. Mowry,	p.	
J. H. Canfield,	p.	p.	M. E. Nicholson,	p.	p.
D. N. Camp,	p.		J. M. Ordway,	p.	
C. Conway,			S. S. Parr,		p.
E. W. Coy,	p.		S. H. Peabody,	p.	p.
N. H. R. Dawson,			J. L. Pickard,	p.	p.
J. W. Dickinson,	p.		J. B. Peaslee,		
N. C. Dougherty,		p.	A. J. Rickoff,	p.	
J. Eaton,	p.		Z. Richards,	p.	p.
G. T. Fairchild,		p.	C. C. Rounds,	p.	
F. A. Fitzpatrick,	p.	p.	T. B. Stockwell,		
A. Gove,	p.	p.	H. B. Sprague,		
J. M. Greenwood,	p.	p.	R. W. Stevenson,	p.	p.
W. N. Hallmann,	p.		W. E. Sheldon,	p.	p.
W. T. Harris,		p.	J. W. Stearns,	p.	
D. B. Hagar,	p.		F. L. Soldan,	p.	p.
J. Hancock,	p.	p.	N. C. Schaeffer,		p.
E. E. Higbee,	p.	p.	J. Swett,		p.
B. A. Hinsdale,	p.		L. S. Thompson,	p.	p.
E. C. Hewett,	p.	p.	H. S. Tarbell,	p.	
I. G. Holt,		p.	D. L. Williams,	p.	
J. H. Hoose,	p.		E. E. White,	p.	
G. H. Howison,		p.	C. M. Woodward,		p.

In Memoriam.

ISRAEL WARD ANDREWS.

JOHN EATON.

In the death of Israel Ward Andrews, D. D., LL. D., for fifty years an instructor in Marietta College, Ohio, and for thirty years its honored President, this Council has lost one of its oldest, most trusted and beloved members. Early in March last he left home to deliver in Boston, before the New England Historical and Genealogical Society, an address on the celebration at Marietta, Ohio, of the first authorized settlement in the territory northwest of the Ohio river, under the ordinance of 1787. On his return, suffering from a cold and fatigue, he rested at the home of a brother in Hartford, Connecticut. His cold developed into pleuro-pneumonia, and he died there, April eighteenth, at the age of seventy-three. He was buried in Marietta, April twentieth. Friends, students, faculty, trustees, and citizens united in the last sad rites, and testified to their high appreciation of the man, Christian, associate, friend, college instructor, and President, whom they mourned. The sense of their great loss was still further manifested in the more extended memorial exercises commemorative of his life and services held in connection with the commencement of the college, in which an address in behalf of the Ohio Archæological and Historical Society was delivered by Hon. W. P. Cutler, a life-long associate, and one in behalf of the Marietta College Club of Cincinnati, by Rev. Geo. M. Maxwell, D. D., who entered college the year Dr. Andrews became an instructor; and one in behalf of the trustees, faculty, and students, by Prof. D. E. Beach, D. D., longest associated with him in the faculty.

Dr. Andrews' life cannot be too closely studied either by aspiring young men or teachers who would honor their profession.

He was born in Danbury, Connecticut. His parents were Rev. William and Sarah Parkhill Andrews. There were six sons, all of whom became men of mark, not by the aid of wealth, but by good ability and wise effort. Dr. Andrews spent one year of his boyhood on a farm, and two years as clerk in a store. He fitted for college, mainly, at home; entered Amherst in 1833, and remained one year. Then he was principal at Danbury Academy one year, and entered Williams College, graduating in 1837 in the *first class, under President Hopkins*. He was principal of Lee Academy one

year, and before the close of 1838 became tutor in Marietta College. The next spring he became Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. He was elected President in 1855, and resigned in 1885, all the while filling a chair of instruction and doing the work of securing both students and funds. After resigning the presidency he filled the chair of Political Philosophy, retaining his remarkable power as teacher to the last. Williams honored him with the degree of D.D in 1856; Iowa, in 1874, with that of LL.D., and Wabash with LL.D. in 1876. He was ordained minister in the Congregational body; was a pillar in the church at Marietta, and an incorporate member of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Although his life was spent in college work, he was a devoted friend of public schools. The present excellent system of graded schools in Marietta is specially due to his early efforts. He entered heartily into the work of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, sharing the burden of its struggles, discussions, papers, and official direction. His labors in the teachers' institutes were highly prized. In this Association and Council of Education, he has always been welcome. He has been ready in all cases to bear his part. His discussions and papers here and elsewhere have been marked by clearness of thought and wise conclusions. He was not hasty, but made progress carefully and held all the advance ground taken with intelligence and firmness. He was also an active and influential member of the Ohio College Association, besides serving actively for years on the Board of Trustees for Lane Theological Seminary. In authorship he is known chiefly for his valuable educational and historical papers and his Manual of the Constitution of the United States, so widely and highly commended by the most eminent publicists and educators. His studies in later years turned specially towards history, in which his accuracy in the minutest details gave him important advantage. He was one of the founders of the Ohio Archæological and Historical Society, and one of the editors of its *Quarterly*. He saw with great clearness the growth of the principles of American constitutions and laws, and specially aided in promoting the proper appreciation of the great ordinance of 1787. His last labors were devoted, as chairman of the committee in charge, to the preparation of the centennial celebration of the first authorized settlement made under that ordinance at Marietta, April 7th, 1788. But Marietta College was preëminently his beloved sphere of action. Living, he devoted to it his untiring efforts, and dying, after providing for his beloved companion and grandchildren, he gave the residue of his estate to its funds. His students and friends are further showing their devotion by their efforts to establish a President Andrews memorial professorship. Thus consecrated and beloved in life, honored in death, his memory will remain a benefaction to the latest time. He married Sarah Hayes Clark, August 8th, 1839, and Marie Anne Stuart Clark, August 24th, 1842. He had four children, all of whom he survived.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HIGHER EDUCATION.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM IN COLLEGES.

[PRESENTED BY S. H. PEABODY.]

The Committee on Higher Education finds the topic assigned to it for consideration and report to be The Elective System in Colleges. The committee conceives that the gist of the subject to be discussed lies in the question: To what extent should students in the higher institutions of learning be permitted to select the studies and arrange the courses which they will pursue?

Before attempting to answer the question, it seems proper to consider some of the conditions that lead up to it.

In the attempt to plan his future life, several questions arise to any young person, which require the exercise of a wise, careful, and deliberate choice; a choice whose results will influence the whole tenor of his after life.

1. THE CHOICE OF OCCUPATION.—The first choice to be made is that of an occupation. What is the man to be; what to do? The answer involves considerations of native ability, temperament, taste, opportunity, environment. The question is always difficult, often an enigma. The person is not conscious of talent or taste in any specific direction. So far as he knows he can do one thing or another equally well, while one or the other suits his aspirations with equal satisfaction. The person will very likely say—and that wisely—that he has not yet had opportunity to know himself, to know the world about him, or to understand the adjustments and adaptations which they have for each other. He does not know what he is fit for; he does not know what life has in store for him. Meanwhile both he and his friends perceive that he does need development, discipline, culture. They wisely say: Let us make the best of this germ of manhood and power, and in time its peculiar mission and its proper capacities will be discovered. The choice of occupation is postponed. This only is determined: that the person will undertake to acquire a thorough and liberal education. Probably, if the facts were known, this person will be the type of the majority of those who enter college.

There is a contrasted type. The person has, in some way, acquired a decided and strong bent in a specific direction. He is sure that he knows what he wants to do. He believes that he has the ability to do it. Still he is satisfied that he needs the discipline of a thorough training, as well as a special culture peculiarly fitting him to do the best work in his chosen field.

The first goes to college to develop all the powers which providence has

given him for an endowment, to the end that he may grow into the largest and best man.

The second goes to college that he may get the best preparation for a chosen work, duty, or vocation, which may occupy his after life.

These conditions will usually be found existing together, and in every variety of proportion. Other objects of college life—and there are others not a few—are not worthy to be considered here.

2. THE CHOICE OF A COLLEGE.—The next choice to be made is that of a college. This item has no large significance in this discussion, and we shall not suffer it to detain us long. In many cases the choice is determined by considerations of heredity, or fashion, or friendship, or economy, or sectarian influence. Few parents or guardians, fewer students, are competent to weigh carefully and to determine wisely, as to the relative merits of the institutions which invite students to enter their portals. But if it were possible to know the facts and to judge between competing schools, the person referred to will doubtless select that which will probably furnish to him the training which he deems most serviceable to his condition. The student wishes to be a professional man; for example, a lawyer. A certain college indicates to him its special fitness for giving a training that stimulates legal acumen; perhaps a large proportion of its graduates has attained eminence in this profession. He does not know just how that result was attained, but that result is what he wants, and therefore he joins that college. For lawyer, insert preacher, scientist, journalist, engineer, etc., and the statement runs substantially the same.

A modification of this item occurs when an institution offers to its students a variety of curricula. The selection between several curricula in one school is but little removed from the selection between different schools. It is still the choice of an end to be secured, rather than of the means to secure that end.

Up to this point the choice has been in most cases empirical, rather than rational. It has been governed by numerous influences not growing out of the real merits of the case. Even in the instance of the person who is quite sure that his choice fits the innate and known qualities of his own mind, there is abundant room for error. It is often a circumstance of true genius, that the possessor has no suspicion of the value of his gift. It is quite as frequently the circumstance of dull inferiority, that the patient has no comprehension of his intense deficiency.

Before entering upon the next division of the subject, it seems necessary to present briefly certain items by way of definition or postulate.

Course of Study.—The first concerns the meaning to be given to the phrase, course of study. Until lately the phrase stood for the outline of the work done by the student between his matriculation and his graduation, also called his curriculum. We find the phrase now often used to signify a sequence of instruction in a given subject, like a course of treatment in medi-

cine, a course of quinine or calomel. It is used in this way by certain institutions which profess to offer to students a large number of courses of study. The statement does not mean that a considerable number of systematic but varied curricula are carried forward coincidentally, as many have innocently supposed, but that instruction is offered in each of a large number of subjects, varying in extent from a brief series of lectures to a sequence of several terms' work. The phrase, course of study, is used in this paper as synonymous with curriculum.

The Value of Studies — Emotional.—The second is the presentation of certain distinct if not antagonistic views as to the real value of studies. It is urged in definite terms by some, and in practice by many more, that the practical value of any study is to be measured by the information that it furnishes, and its pedagogic value by the interest or stimulus it offers to arouse mental activity. That the utility of a subject to any person is to be gauged by the liking which that person feels for it. Whence it would appear that what a student works upon is of little consequence, if only his interest is aroused, his mental activity stimulated, and that he is happy in his work. And there is a certain measure of truth in this.

Disciplinary.—But another view is, that all subjects of study segregate themselves into a few groups, according to certain intrinsic qualities, and that the subjects of each group have a distinct pedagogic value and utility in the development and training of the mental powers or faculties—these faculties being not separate entities or organs, but only varied manifestations of mental vigor and activity. For example, in the study of certain subjects we develop acuteness and clearness of reasoning; in others, readiness of observation; in others, skill and vigor of expression, etc., etc.

If the first of these views be the correct one, no one should ever set himself about any study that does not present itself to him as agreeable and attractive. His boat should never leave the areas of pleasant shores, smooth seas, and sunny waters. If the second be true, it may after all be worth while to strip to the conflict, to wrestle, to buffet, and to win and triumph after hard struggles and persevering, vigorous effort. This paper is written in the belief that so far as there may be found any difference, any conflict between these two ideas whereby if one prevail the other must give way, the second is that which expresses the largest, most vital, and most enduring pedagogic truth.

3. THE CHOICE OF STUDIES.—Having expressed these opinions, we proceed to examine this question. Shall the student be held to a curriculum of study, as presenting the conditions on which the honors of graduation may be granted to him, or shall he have the capacities of the institution open to him, with the privilege of making up for himself a curriculum of work, to be followed by equal honors of graduation whenever a certain term of residence or a certain summation of result has been completed? For this *appears to be the statement of the difference between the restrictive and the*

elective systems as now practiced in American colleges. Or, to put the case a little more plainly, since there can be no compulsion in the matter, shall the influence of the college be exerted to induce students to follow curricula arranged in the light of such wisdom and experience as have been acquired by those who have made the details of education the business of life, illumined by the successful labors of generations, or shall these be exchanged to suit the inconsiderate vagaries of inexperienced school-boys?

For it is fair to assume that the usual collegiate courses of study have been arranged with good judgment, based upon the results of experience. That they take note particularly of the unities of the human soul. They assume that in the larger measure, the characteristics of the human intellect are similar in all normally-constituted persons as certainly as their anatomical forms and physiological characters are fashioned after the same model. They assume that a well-trained and cultured student is such because he has given attention, has acquired discipline, and has attained power as to all the qualities which pertain to a well-balanced, and symmetrical, and vigorous, and healthy intellectual structure. That whether one is to be poet or philosopher; linguist or scientist; orator, author, physician, or jurist; engineer, artist, merchant, or manufacturer, his senses must be keen; his sensibilities acute; his logic valid; his judgment clear and deliberate; his imagination active and vivid; his understanding luminous; his will under control; his powers of expression accurate and forceful; in a word, that each form of psychical activity should have its full, normal, and well-balanced development. A right education should develop that which is deficient, cultivate that which is feeble, stimulate that which is dormant, guide that which is vigorous, and restrain that which is abnormal or vicious in tendency. If there be any better or nobler ideal of the right influence of educating every form of human intellect, your committee has failed to discover it.

It nevertheless makes no Procrustean bed; it cuts nothing down to a pattern; it provides for idiosyncrasies so far as they may be wisely considered. It makes the strong stronger by reinforcing all its weaker adjuncts and coadjutors. The intelligent farmer does not expect that asses will become horses under any method of treatment or system of feeding; but he does expect that a generous diet, with proper breaking to harness, will make both asses and horses more excellent servants, each after his kind.

Let us now assume that the arrangement of college courses upon a consideration of the unities of the human mind, is, after all, unphilosophical. That, on the contrary, the selection should seek to provide first for the varieties that will be found to exist. Let us admit that each intellect is peculiar, in some respects unlike any other, just as, amid all the leaflets which exist in the foliage of a majestic tree, no two are precisely alike. Recognizing that there are differences of greater or less degree, let us assume that each intellect demands a peculiar training, and a distinctly modified course

of discipline and instruction. Then a wise choice will require the consideration of three things.

1. **THE MIND TO BE DISCIPLINED.**—A fairly complete knowledge of the powers and defects of the mind which is to be treated. Concerning this it will be urged that no person understands his own mental condition so well as the man himself, since he only has the immediate knowledge of those activities as presented by his own consciousness. While this may be true as to facts,—as the man knows that he feels, or that he remembers—it is not true as to relations, since one's appreciation of relationship depends upon his ability to know the elements of relationship; the man knows that he remembers, but does not know whether his memory may be classed as good or bad, until he has learned what the attributes of a good or a bad memory may be. The student can hardly be considered the most competent person to diagnose his own mental states or needs. The young person who enters college, who is but a boy or girl in development or attainment, no matter what his age, can hardly have a clear understanding of his own condition or needs. There is every reason to suppose that he is densely ignorant in these respects; that as he progresses in his mental training he will revise his judgments, modify his plans, change his purposes, and graduate in all these respects very different from what he was at his matriculation. How often have we heard such say: "I thought I knew what I wanted, but I have found my error, and I now deeply regret that I did not accept the advice of wiser experience, so kindly offered me when I began my college course."

2. **THE DISCIPLINE REQUIRED.**—The next item for consideration is the counterpart of the first—namely, an intelligent comprehension of the specific ends which a course of study, rightly adjusted to one's needs, should secure. It supposes that the training needed is either to amplify, or to supplement the mental condition, which being as we have shown an unknown function, the needed correction, or complement, must be as surely unknown. The early student does not comprehend the nature of the improvement which he only vaguely seeks, nor the growth of which he is capable, nor the advantages which will accrue to him when the deficiencies of which he is yet unconscious, are supplied, and the imperfections removed or relieved.

3. **THE MEANS TO BE USED.**—Nor is the third point in any better degree understood. To the young person most of the subjects from which his choice is to be made are yet entirely unknown. He has heard that this is easy, that is difficult; this is interesting, that is dry; this is "practical," that is applicable to no "useful" purpose, as he understands the term useful. When once he has begun to be familiar with a new subject, and particularly when he has acquired some degree of mastery over it, his opinions are likely to undergo a partial, or even a complete change. Even then he may not know what that work is doing in and for him. The transformation going on in himself he may not well appreciate until long after, when he has

reached a higher eminence whence he may enjoy a wider view, both as to himself and as to his environment.

The Young Student not Prepared to Judge.—It therefore appears to be a matter of absolute necessity that the early student does not know, and is not capable of judging what his real condition may be, nor what specific improvements he ought to seek, nor what are the means by which those desired ends are to be reached. If the client is the poorest judge of both law and equity as affecting himself and his interests; if the patient is in no fit condition to diagnose his own ailments, or to prescribe for their relief, so is the early student not the proper person to direct the details of his own mental development. Nor is this restricted to the case when development and discipline are the object of his scholarly labor. It is the commonest thing in the observation of those who have contact with students to see that they misconceive the drift of the subjects offered to them, or the results which may be gained by application thereto. Not unfrequently the student who is most earnestly asking what is the good of—say linguistic study—is that very student whose linguistic culture is most lamentably deficient. Or that the student who shrinks from wrestling with mathematical abstractions, shrinks because of his own weakness, while he particularly needs that exact discipline which only mathematics can furnish him. In the end his eyes are opened, and he says: “I am glad you compelled me to learn—geometry.”

Approaching this subject from whatever direction, we are led to the conclusion that at least in the earlier stages of their education, students are not prepared to judge wisely as to the details of the mental and scholarly training which is best for them. They can do no more than indicate the general trend and scope of the education which they believe they desire, while even their beliefs are not always based upon logical or prudent foundations.

But all the purposes and processes of education must tend toward a removal of the disabilities which have been described as inherent in the student's condition. He must gain in knowledge of himself, his own conditions, deficiencies, and needs. He must begin to discern the ends which true culture, fitted to his necessities, will secure. He must gain a clearer insight into the influences of studies, and the effects which they produce upon his intellectual powers, and the beneficial or pernicious nature of their results. He must, as he rises upon the slopes of the hills, constantly acquire a broader vision, with larger views of life, of his own capacities and duties, and of the fields of labor which open before him. The time will come when he may, and therefore should, become the architect of his own farther mental structure, the pilot of his own vessel, the captain of his own marching and victorious hosts.

When will this time come? The years usually spent by young persons at college are they that mark the transition from adolescence to manhood or womanhood. The young man comes to college with most of his acquisitions yet to gain. *As has been shown*, he knows neither himself, nor learning,

nor life; and the most distressing part of his ignorance is his unconsciousness of it.

When does a young man arrive at years of discretion? When is he competent to undertake the full control of his business affairs? The law provides that he may not control his own property until he has reached an age when he may be presumed to have in a measure laid aside the frivolities of youth, and to have undertaken the more serious and reflective duties of manhood. It may be that the so-called age of majority has been wrongly fixed, but the principle, rightly at the bottom, is that no young man or woman may have the control of property until an age is reached which presumes fitness to undertake the responsibility. It is a saying almost too trite for such a discussion, that one's mind is worth more than any possible estate, and that the direction of its proper culture is the highest duty that can be undertaken. Is it, then, too much to claim that the principles that rule in the lesser example should rule also in the greater? As before said, the precise line where these distinctions may be drawn, differs greatly as to persons, and is with difficulty drawn as to the entire class considered. Certainly the time when a young person has acquired growth, culture, poise, judgment, and wisdom enough to decide these important questions, comes only very shortly, even if it comes at all, before the end of his usual collegiate course.

It will be observed that the word university has not, hitherto, been used in this report. Whether university work is at all coincident with college work, or is restricted to that which follows college work, in either case it is fully provided for in the application of principle.

In closing this report your committee presents the following propositions:

1. A system which permits all collegiate students to select the specific subjects which they will pursue is not based upon consideration of sound educational principles; it is mischievous in its tendencies, and should not be approved.

2. It is not proposed to hew all men to the same pattern, nor to neglect or suppress the native genius of any student. This must have sway, but the choice which is permitted to such, and to all, should be a choice of results rather than of methods; a choice between courses of study, leading to well-recognized ends, rather than of specific studies, usually governed by the most trivial and insignificant reasons, and leading nowhere.

3. If some latitude of choice of subjects be conceded to the growing intelligence, during college life, it should be restricted to the latter one, or at most two years of the course.

4. Each of the earlier, or so-called Bachelor's degrees, given at the close of college work as the symbols of graduation, should indicate some well-recognized and distinctive course of collegiate training, so that both the bearer and the public may know with some degree of certainty what it signifies, as well in outline as in quantity and quality.

5. All courses of study offered to or required of undergraduates should be

so carefully planned, so wisely balanced, and so thoroughly performed, as to secure in some reasonable measure a large, full, and symmetrical culture to all who are the honored recipients, to the end that no technical man may be utterly barren of literary culture, and no literary man may be totally ignorant and imbecile as to the practical affairs of life.

Respectfully submitted.

SELIM H. PEABODY,
WILLIAM E. SHELDON,
JAMES H. BAKER,
JOHN S. IRIWN,
Committee.

COMMUNICATION FROM W. T. HARRIS.

The undersigned, while having nothing but approval and commendation for what he considers the spirit of the report and for its preliminary discussions, herewith begs to dissent from said report on the ground that it is not sufficiently precise and discriminating in defining the point where the student may safely be trusted with the power to select his course, nor in setting forth what the undersigned believes to be true and very important, namely, that some colleges admit students to their freshman class at the immature age of fifteen years, or with the insufficient preparation of a two-years course in classical study, while others demand much more, and a few demand as much preparation for admission to their freshman classes as colleges of the lowest rank demand for graduation and the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The undersigned believes it to be the intention of the Committee to admit the propriety of election to some extent in the latter part of the college course, and would suggest that if the lowest grade of colleges may safely admit election of studies or of courses in their senior year's work, then it should be acknowledged in the report that the highest grades of colleges may with equal safety admit election in the studies of freshman year.

The undersigned believes that there is a difference in scholarship between the standards for graduation in American colleges equal to an average three-years course of study, and that for this reason the recommendations of the report should have been defined in some way by allusion to the curriculum, or to age and year's work taken together, so as to make the report a criticism upon those colleges which grant the privilege of election to students of insufficient maturity.

The undersigned, moreover, thinks that the limits of election should have been in some manner more exactly described, so as to make clear whether an election is admitted between a course in modern languages and a classical course in the preparation for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; or whether a proficiency in any one of the natural sciences should be accepted as an equivalent for proficiency in ancient or modern languages, or in mathematics, or whether by election your Committee understands only the substitution of one classical author for another, or of one science for another.

The undersigned believes that the Committee intends to be understood as supporting the claims of the classical and mathematical branches for the substantial place they have held in the curriculum of the past, but thinks that there should be some explicit statement of this conviction — otherwise it is possible for the Bachelor's degree to signify no "large, full and symmetrical culture;" and if there may be a substitution of modern languages and sci-

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ences for the classical languages, it is difficult to see what objection could be made to any elective system.

The undersigned believes in the necessity of Latin, Greek and mathematics for the substantial foundation of the college course of study for the Bachelor's degree, and thinks that there should be required for admission to college (at the age of, say, eighteen) an equivalent to what would be an average of three years' study of these branches and two years of subsequent work in the college on these studies. There should be, however, represented in the preparatory course as well as in the college course a collateral study of the three moderns, to wit: modern literature, natural science, and universal history. For Junior and Senior years in college the undersigned would permit elective studies within certain limits, going so far as to permit the student to discontinue Latin, Greek and mathematics altogether, for those two years. With this provision for the standard college, the undersigned would approve election in Sophomore and even in Freshman year in such colleges as elevate their standard of admission respectively one or two years above that defined for the standard college.

In conclusion, the undersigned would add that he thinks it important to have the relative value of classical authors defined so that equivalents may be well understood by pupils, and by teachers who form courses of study.

Respectfully,

W. T. HARRIS.

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING REPORT.

[REPORTED BY JAMES H. BAKER.]

Mr. Gove thought the statement of the first proposition faulty in that it ignored the fact that parents and others advise students in the selection of studies.

Mr. Canfield agreed with Mr. Gove; and inquired whether the committee would permit the insertion of the words "with the advice and consent of parents."

Mr. Peabody—No. Students, when selecting studies, are accustomed to examine the curriculum for themselves somewhat as they would consult a bill of fare at a restaurant.

Mr. King—The paper implies that the student, before choosing, avails himself of the advice of others.

Mr. James—The report implies that a Freshman in college is not prepared to choose, for instance, between a classical and a scientific course. It further implies that everyone should pursue the same course.

Mr. Peabody—Not at all; but the choice is limited to a choice between courses.

Mr. Harris—The paper is sound in principles, but is defective in that it does not give the history of the elective system. The standard of admission to colleges has been advanced. This fact should be considered when discussing the question. Some years ago young men could enter college at the age of fourteen. If students were not then able to choose studies wisely, they may now be able to do so, since they enter with more preparation and at an advanced age. It is President Eliot's

view that, with the advanced preparation, the student is able to choose studies with a degree of insight into their value.

Mr. Hewett—Is there not an unfortunate tendency in colleges to say to a student, "We want you; come and take what you please"?

Mr. Schaeffer—Did Dr. Harris assert it to be a fact that the standard for admission to-day is equal to the standard for graduation some years ago?

Mr. Harris—That is my statement, and Dr. Eliot's claim.

Mr. Schaeffer—If this is true, then Harvard is a university, and is not reached by this paper. At Johns Hopkins students are subject to advice and direction in the choice of studies. I think the proposition (the first) should stand. I believe that in practice students generally select their own courses.

Mr. Harris—The paper, perhaps unconsciously, refers to Harvard. It should be limited to colleges that have not advanced their standard for admission.

Mr. Peabody—Harvard did not originate the elective system. I doubt the statement that the standard of Harvard is so much ahead of that of other good colleges.

Mr. Sheldon—One of the Harvard examiners told me that in Harvard young men are thoroughly advised as to courses of study. I doubt the statement that certain preparatory work is done better now than it was done years ago, although the entire course of preparation to-day is broader.

Mr. Canfield—Tradition helps determine the choice of studies, and it affects instructors as well as students. The development of mind in a school system enables the student to choose when he reaches the college. Responsibility is a good thing for the student, and he will work with more zeal if he chooses for himself. In the University of Kansas easy courses are not popular.

Mr. Thompson thought the proposition under discussion remained true in spite of all that had been said.

Mr. Harris—The question is not whether this proposition is a truism, but whether it is something fresh and worth saying. I think that the proposition should be reported back to the committee to be made more definite as to the class of colleges meant.

Mr. Peabody then read the second and the third propositions, offering some explanations of the latter. He added that in his opinion, students even in Harvard do choose largely for themselves.

Mr. Sheldon and Mr. Canfield gave instances showing that in certain institutions, choice of studies is subject to approval.

Mr. Harris, discussing the fourth proposition, said that what is requisite for a Bachelor's degree should be specified.

Mr. Sheldon made the point that a boy should not graduate unless he has pursued something thoroughly disciplinary, and that the paper should emphasize the fact.

Mr. Fitzpatrick agreed with Mr. Harris in saying that the studies that might lead to a degree should be specified.

Mr. Harris—The spirit of the paper is admirable; but the report is somewhat defective in that it does not hit something straight between the eyes. People will read it, say it is good, and go on as before.

Mr. King thought the report was written with the better class of colleges in view.

Mr. Sheldon—Degrees have become cheap. I know men who would not thank you for any honorary degree, because degrees mean nothing. The report aims to convey the idea that a degree should stand for something.

Mr. Greenwood—The report should be made more specific by stating what in mathematics, science, literature, and language, should be required for a degree. A definite outline should go before the country. I suggest that the committee be given more time, to make out a minimum course of study.

Mr. Harris said that the report considered the subjective effect of the studies rather than the objective, and it spoke of the training of the reasoning powers, the cultivation of attention, etc., as though it was this subjective effect that justified the course of study. This seemed to him a mistake. The course of study should be based on the objective significance of the branches. The course of study should give to the pupil a view of the world, and the several branches should cover the entire ground of the objective—that is to say, the world of nature and the world of man.

It is through this mistake of grounding the course of study on the subjective results upon the mind rather than on the capacity of the studies to furnish a complete view of the world, that is the source of the wide divergence of opinion that exists in regard to the branches necessary for a college curriculum.

There is no subject in nature that will not serve the purpose of developing both perception and reflection, if used as an object of instruction in accordance with a proper method. But the question is not the abstract training of observation and logical acuteness, but the concrete acquisition of a sound view of the world and a sufficient knowledge of one's natural and human environment to enable one to act rationally in view of his circumstances. The course of study has been founded on this principle rather than on any subtle considerations of psychology. Latin, Greek and mathematics, for instance, have been chosen for the disciplinary part of the college curriculum because a higher course of study must make the pupil acquainted with the elements of his civilization and give him an insight into the necessary laws of nature. Mathematics reveals the laws of time and space, and shows us how matter must exist and how it must act. By this intellectual tool of thought man is emancipated from thralldom to nature and becomes its lord and master. Mathematics, then, stands out before and above all studies in natural science as their universal basis.

Again, our civilization is derivative, having four strands, so to speak. Two very important strands have been furnished to modern civilization by the Greeks and the Romans. In God's providence the Romans were specially charged with the function of discovering the forms and ceremonies essential for civil and political society. How can man combine with his fellows in such a manner as to reënforce their production and be himself in turn helped by society? The Romans invented and defined the formula for the acquisition and transfer of property by contract and testaments, and also defined the negative deeds in a criminal code. These affirmative and negative codes which make possible corporate action are written in Latin words in all modern languages. A study of Latin, even for a few months, turns the mind towards the observation of this element of our civilization, and fits the mind in some degree to perceive this Roman element.

On the other hand, a study of Greek disciplines the student to think the world after the manner of the Greek. It was the providential mission of the Greek to see nature as a poetic symbol of our inner spiritual selfhood. Hence the Greek poets and dramatists taught the world how to turn prose facts into spiritual truths by figures of personification and metaphor. The Greek mythology is a storehouse filled by the unconscious Greek genius with the brick and mortar of all literary edifices. Moreover, the Greek advanced from æsthetic art to science, and Aristotle's school explored and systematized the worlds of nature and man, and furnished the technique and at last the outline forms of all our principal sciences.

The Roman gave us consciousness of the substantial forms of our will, and the Greeks gave us conscious possession of our creative imagination and of our intellect to speak in the language of psychology. In objective technique we get possession of those two important spiritual strands of our civilization by the study of Latin

- and Greek, and we get a practical insight into matter and motion by the study of mathematics.

Mr. Greenwood asked of Mr. Peabody what was meant by the sentence "that no technical man," etc.

Mr. Peabody in response gave extreme examples of purely technical and purely literary men. Mr. Peabody said further, that the Committee on Higher Education was a permanent one, and he suggested that the specific report asked for in connection with the fourth proposition be presented as a separate report at some future meeting.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

BOOKS ON PEDAGOGY.

[PRESENTED BY N. C. SCHARFFER.]

We have crossed a continent to see the educational and other wonders of the Pacific Slope. Many of us would journey around the globe to see and hear a great teacher like Plato, or Aristotle. But we may enjoy a higher privilege without leaving our homes. In the library we can commune with the choice spirits of every age and clime, and that, too, under the most favorable circumstances; for men of genius are at their best when they put pen to paper, or when their admiring pupils report them. Months might elapse before the sadness of Plato, or the squalor of Socrates, or the jargon of Pestalozzi, would cease to mar our enjoyment of their teaching; the literature which contains their best thoughts we have learned to peruse with lingering delight.

Of general literature there is indeed a bewildering abundance. Has pedagogy furnished much to occupy a reader's time? The superficial observer might answer in the negative; the specialist cannot help giving a different reply. Think of the cyclopædias of Schmid and Paroz, each containing matter enough to consume the leisure of a lifetime. These prodigious works are chiefly valuable as books of reference; to try to read them entirely would be as senseless as the effort to read the whole of an unabridged dictionary. Information of a certain kind the teacher may get from these ponderous tomes; his inspiration he must draw from other sources. Much may come from daily communion with the Great Teacher; much also is derived from contact with pupils and colleagues; a goodly portion should come from books. A teacher's books may be classified under three heads: the first comprising those which he needs for the sake of culture, or general information; the second those which bear on the subject-matter of the instruction he gives; and the third (which should constitute by far the most select part of his library) embracing the literature that should guide and inspire his professional life. To the last class belong the books on pedagogy.

It were folly in the half-hour allotted to this report, to attempt a bibliography of the literature on teaching; nor is it necessary, for at this time the labors of Diesterweg, Hall, and MacAlister furnish the needed information. It might be interesting to discuss the national characteristics of the books in pedagogy; to contrast, for instance, the profound thoroughness and speculative tendency of the Germans with the charming vivacity and brilliant intellectuality of the French; or to compare the hopeful thinking and ple-

beian aspirations of Young America with the conservative tendencies of English thought and school-life; but the task is so delicate and so difficult that even scholars like Henry Barnard shrink from it, and the writer prefers, therefore, to discuss the theme from a different standpoint.

Pedagogy has a history. "How shall the young be trained?" is a question that has received more or less attention from the wisest of every age and country. It is folly to assume that in education we have just reached the border-land of discovery. The rich legacy which the centuries have left us should not be ignored. Careful study of the famous teachers of other days enables us to profit by their experience, and sometimes to avoid methods plausible on the surface, yet based upon theories that were exploded long ago. Systems that have stood the test of ages always contain elements worthy of preservation. True progress implies a vital connection between the past and the present. Things which grow defective by reason of changing conditions of society, must of course be abolished if the world's life is to move onward and upward; but this does not involve an entire break with the past, nor is it incompatible with the other side of the historic process which consists in lifting up and carrying over into the new period the real essence of the periods that preceded. This is the underlying thought in the great histories of Schmid and Raumer; and any book treating the subject from any other standpoint is little better than a wilderness of facts. But the objection to the histories just named is their size. The idea of traversing between five and six thousand pages, the task in many places resembling that of wading through a deep stream, is appalling to the ordinary reader. This objection does not hold against Oscar Browning's *Educational Theories*, or Quick's *Educational Reformers*. Both are excellent as far as they go; both treat Froebel as if he were beneath their notice, to say nothing of other names deserving a place in the history of education. The treatise by Prof. Painter is in some respects more satisfactory. It is more complete, and the extracts make it a valuable book for those who enjoy the privilege of attending a course of lectures. It does not mention the name of Horace Mann. It devotes twice as much space to Martin Luther as to the founder of Christianity, who is by universal consent called the Great Teacher. Moreover, it was made in the study; it did not grow out of actual class teaching; pupils can hardly prepare from its pages a lesson for class recitation. This criticism will not apply to the work of Prof. Compayré, who wrote to meet the wants of his own pupils. His book is clear, interesting, entertaining; the translation into English is a very creditable performance; and the notes by Prof. Payne greatly enhance its value. But it makes Teutonic blood boil to find about as much space devoted to France as to all the rest of the world. More inspiring than any of these is that gem of a book by Prof. Hailmann, called the *History of Pedagogy*. The only thing about it to be regretted is its brevity.

Perhaps the day has not arrived for a complete history of education.

Although much valuable material has been gathered in the works above mentioned and in the special treatises of Capes, Mahaffey, Mullinger, Laurie, Newman, and others, much still remains to be collected and assorted; nor have the achievements of famous teachers and the results of their systems been as carefully studied as the theories and speculations of educational reformers. It is possible for a superintendent to make a reputation for himself and his schools by writing and scattering magnificent reports. Another, instead of spending his time in the study, expends his energy in getting things done. The latter is a far more efficient and useful officer. The constant test of what is possible in practice will correct his visionary ideals and keep him from advocating extensive innovations; he will never be known in history as an educational reformer. The so-called educational reformers are a very disappointing class of people. They are troubled with ideas; they often lack executive ability, and never realize the sanguine expectations of themselves and their ardent friends. But there is an air of freshness, vigor, and inspiration about their writings that marks them as men of genius. What they cannot achieve by reason of their one-sidedness, is often accomplished by their followers. Whilst the test of a reform is found in the fruition of later years, perhaps of subsequent generations, the moving forces are generally best seen in the literary labors of him who started the movement. Hence the supreme value of books like Rousseau's *Emile* and Pestalozzi's *Leonard and Gertrude*. Glance for a moment at the career of the latter book. While its author was struggling with poverty and failure, the book moved in triumph over Europe. It stirred the hearts of noblemen, statesmen, and philosophers. At Königsberg a woman clad in royal apparel reads it with tears in her eyes, and then persuades her husband, Frederick William III., to send young men to Yverdon for the purpose of studying the methods of Pestalozzi and of introducing his principles into the teaching of Prussia. The sublime result need not be described; it is well known by all the members of this Council. For inspiration there is no literature to be compared with the writings of those who sought to correct the abuses in the educational systems of their day. They wrote because they had something to say and felt they must say it for the good of mankind.

Although the United States spends more upon schools than any portion of the Old World with twice our population, the average teacher's salary obliges him to be very select in the purchase of books on pedagogy. One general history of education and the leading classics of the type of Froebel's *Education of Man* are all that he can afford to own of the literature on the history of pedagogy. Nor is it necessary for him to read much more in this line. The value of such literature is largely negative. Aside from the fact that it may give us inspiration and establish us in the faith delivered unto us by the saints of the school-room, its chief value lies in giving us the learning of our profession whereby we may know what errors to reject, what heresies to avoid. If education has been making progress that is

truly historic—and we believe it has—the benefits of past reforms must have been conserved in the systems of the present, and the larger proportion of a teacher's books on pedagogy should belong to the class treating of the education of to-day. If we except the Book of books, the latter half of the nineteenth century has surpassed all previous time in publications valuable for a teacher's library. The whole nature of man is studied as never before. The facts of child-growth are observed and recorded; the methods by which mind acts on mind and will infuses itself into will, are examined and compared; the different kinds of knowledge are weighed and tested for the purpose of ascertaining their educational value; the appliances for imparting instruction are indefinitely multiplied; the grading, organization, management, and supervision of schools have developed a distinct class of experts; and as the result of these investigations there has been unparalleled literary activity in the direction of pedagogy. Much that issues from the press is, of course, comparatively worthless. The columns of the weekly or monthly journal must be filled; some articles "read" as if their authors wrote for pay, not because they had something to say. At times one is tempted to think the bookbinder must have made a mistake; for if cover and title-page were destroyed, the dispute which Solomon settled between the parents who claimed the same child, might be enacted over again. Were it not a thankless task, one might show where quotation-marks were forgotten, and where the usefulness of books has been much impaired because the authors could not forbear showing off their prodigious learning. Education is not advanced by persistent fault-finding. Some critics resemble the vulture that soars high up into the air and perceives nothing in the beautiful landscape except the stinking carcasses. We are glad to testify that the journals on pedagogy display as much thought as any other periodicals; and some series of articles which have recently appeared, deserve preservation in book form. Some educational literature will bear comparison with the masterpieces of English style. Where will you find diction superior to Huntingdon's *Unconscious Tuition*, or Bushnell's *Discourse on Unconscious Influence*, or Wilson's *Five Gateways of Knowledge*? Where can you find speeches in print more readable than those of Horace Mann? Where will you find better English than that of the *Historical Sketches* of John Henry Newman? Some of the finest things that W. E. Channing ever wrote bear upon pedagogy. Herbert Spencer's felicities of style have helped to popularize some of his sophisms and heartless theories in matters pedagogical. Nevertheless his "Education" should be read again and again by every teacher. Some of the things written by the older and honorary members of this Council deserve a place alongside of Spencer's *Education*, but a sense of delicacy forbids the mention of their names. We can, however, not forbear mentioning in this connection the martyr of pedagogical literature, Henry Barnard,* who has devoted his fortune and his life to bringing within the

* "Beside all the educational work Dr. Barnard has done in the last forty years, (of which an amazing account is given in the *Connecticut School Journal* of 1855, covering ninety-nine pages, of which we

reach of American teachers the finest things on education that the ages have produced. He will hardly live to reap a share of the profits which will be scooped in from the modern movement in the direction of reading circles.

Where lies the danger in the present deluge of publications on the subject of pedagogy? The State Superintendent of Pennsylvania found one of his subordinates working his way through a huge mass of educational literature. "My friend," he exclaimed, "you read too much and think too little." Reading too much and thinking too little is the whirlpool most likely to submerge the ambitious young pedagogue. After all, every teacher must work out his own salvation from routine and other errors; he cannot enter the paradise of successful class instruction upon the shoulders of another. The method derives its value from the teacher behind it, not the teacher from the method he pursues. In Pestalozzi's days they used to speak of his method as "*die einzig wahre Methode*," as the only true method; the younger Schwarz says he has discovered that there is no such thing as an only true method. After the craze for Summer Schools of Methods and ready-made devices shall have somewhat subsided, the entire profession may come to realize that there is no universal method for achieving the ends of pedagogy, but that just as each personality is a distinct setting forth of the divine image in human form, so each teacher must adapt his methods to the ever-changing needs of his pupils as well as to the change that takes place in himself with

have not space to quote even the outline,) he has been publishing for the last twenty-seven years this *Encyclopedia of Education*, giving not his own paraphrase of the ideas and systems of all the great philosophers of education, but their own statements of them in their own words, together with the biographies of all distinguished educators and minute descriptions of all educational institutions in Europe and America in their methods and working. He put it into the form of a quarterly journal because he thought that enough teachers would subscribe to meet the expense of printing it. In this expectation he has been disappointed, for he has no clap-trap, and the contents were of too solid a character to serve as a manual for merely empirical teachers. Therefore, he has gone on publishing volume after volume at his own private expense of more than \$1,000 a year, and finds himself within sight of his goal with no more resource of means.

"It was the manifest disinterestedness of 'Louis Agassiz, teacher,' (as he directed should be the inscription upon his tombstone,) that touched and set flowing the public liberality in his case. Not less remarkable, but even more so, is the case of Dr. Barnard. Having just completed the most extensive and costly preparation that could be made in America and Europe for the profession of law, for which he seemed rarely gifted, and having been chosen and served for the years 1838, 1839 and 1840 as a member of the Connecticut Legislature, where he distinguished himself, he was asked to become the law-partner of Wyllis Hall, then Attorney-General of New York State, which would have given him position at once. But he persistently turned away from all prospects of ample gains in business and elevation into public life. He threw himself, at 28 years of age, wholly into educational work, counting it, as did his friend Horace Mann, the highest and most beneficent employment of human powers and spending in the work itself all that he received as salaries in the several offices that he filled of Superintendent of Education for four years in Rhode Island, where he created a public-school system, and subsequently as chancellor of two universities successively; also \$10,000 more than he received as first Commissioner of the Department of Education, established by Congress between 1868 and 1870, inclusive.

"Dr. Barnard inherited a modest fortune, consisting mainly of the beautiful homestead in Hartford where he was born and now resides. But \$40,000 of this fortune he has sunk in publishing this journal, being persuaded that to put concentrated normal schools, as it were, in the form of this library all over the land is the most efficient thing that could be done for universal education, in whose excellence inheres our continued national existence and welfare. This encyclopædic journal will be completed by three volumes more, making thirty-three volumes in the whole."—[Miss Elizabeth Peabody, in a letter to the *Boston Herald*, quoted by C. W. Barden in 1881.

experience and professional growth. What the teacher needs above everything else is, books that shall give him seed-thoughts. Are such to be found? Certainly. Who can read a page of Sailer, or Fitch, without evolving new thoughts? Who can read Latham on the Action of Examinations, or Marcell on the Study of Language, without seeing these subjects in a new light and formulating for himself theories that will change his pedagogy? The fear of being stigmatized as a society for mutual admiration is the writer's excuse for not mentioning certain works by members of this Council which should be placed in the same category by reason of their stimulating effect upon the reader.

It would be wrong to close this report without reference to the vast fields that still remain to be explored. "Future lines of growth," says one member of your committee, "should be in the direction of a study of the principles of human nature, (not psychology alone, but the whole man,) a clear statement of those principles in definite language, and a development of their relation to methods." Psychology has hitherto dealt mainly with the nature of the intellectual faculties, not with their genesis and growth. The laws which govern the culture of the feelings and the training of the will have been almost entirely overlooked. In the development of the will, for instance, we may discern at least three stages of growth. During the first stage, it acts for the gratification of self; during the next, self-denial is practiced, for the purpose of realizing some end, or of living according to some maxim; the third stage is not reached until the will begins to act under the inspiration of the right as its determining law. George speaks of the "perishing upper classes." This phenomenon is largely due to the fact that the sons of the rich often do not develop beyond the first stage; they grow up without learning to act from any motives higher than self-gratification. The benefits of manual training on the side of the will, especially in the education of the rich, should be pointed out and enforced in the most eloquent terms possible. The relation which the training of the hand bears to the training of head and heart, is deserving of the most careful investigation. Were the Hebrews not wise in requiring every son to learn a trade? Much may be gained by studying the Bible from a pedagogic standpoint; and the fact that the discourses which have come down to us from the Great Teacher, make the will and not the intellect of central significance, shows conclusively that we need some books on the Education of the Will, if not a re-setting of the whole science of pedagogy.

The æsthetic side of man's nature is also deserving of further study. Burke long ago pointed out the kinship between the beautiful and the sublime; Vischer has shown that the comic belongs to the same category. The hazing which still disgraces some of our colleges is a perversion of man's fondness for the ludicrous. Not until we correctly estimate and properly utilize in education, the beautiful, the sublime, and the comic, especially the last two as they appear in tragedy and comedy, can we hope for the extinc-

tion of barbarous and cowardly school customs, and in their place the cultivation of noble sentiments and lofty aspirations.

These and other fields which invite the student of pedagogy, and at which there is no time to glance, show that he at least has no occasion, like Alexander, to shed tears because there are no more worlds to conquer. Indeed, his mission is higher than that of conquest. He deals with immortal minds; his work does not perish with time. In his experiments he must shun great efforts at originality, for his blunders are not buried, like those of the physician, in a cemetery, but often stalk about in broad daylight, a curse to themselves and their fellows. In writing books on pedagogy, it is less dangerous to give the imagination free reins; for the good sense which springs from actual teaching enables the fraternity to estimate all visionary theories at their true value, and only a few years are needed to consign such books to the *limbus fatuorum*.

DISCUSSION OF THE REPORT.

[REPORTED BY GEO. T. FAIRCHILD.]

Mr. Greenwood, of Missouri, suggested that reports made by superintendents of city schools would be much more useful to teachers if they showed the kind of work attempted, than they are with the multitude of figures usually given. They should give original work in the study of methods. He had found the reports of Supt. Harrington especially suggestive in this line.

Mr. Gove, of Colorado, reminded the Council that reports are first for the people, second for the professional corps. If this were borne in mind, criticism would be less severe.

Mr. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, asked for more definite instruction as to whether students should begin with the history of pedagogy, or with its literature. If possible, a course of study for young teachers should be prescribed.

Mr. Schaeffer answered as follows: An Englishman has given one hundred best books. This committee tried to make a similar list; but the chairman and myself could not agree. I do not think it possible to prescribe for two pupils exactly the same course of reading.

Mr. Sheldon — That is just what I want.

Mr. Soldan — It would be well to give a limited list. What sense in writing upon pedagogy if there can be no fixed method? He would combat the fallacy that there are no settled methods. No one thinks of many varieties of logic, though the differences in reasoning are many. The human mind may be influenced in methods according to a general law. There may be a science of education, and works on pedagogy should seek to give the settled laws. It is also the duty of a committee to give books that meet this want. A list of ten English books, with their contents, might fill a pamphlet of ten pages. A similar pamphlet might cover German works, and another those in French. Mr. Soldan would not place Compayré among the best of French works; but would mention Eggers On Language of Infants; Perez's Three Years of Childhood, and Psychology of Childhood; also Tredeman's History of an Infant.

Mr. Fitzpatrick, of Kansas, thinks there are different roads to the same end. Who is to say which of great artists is best? or which of great poets? It would be better to select fifteen or twenty good books that a teacher may assimilate for himself

what suits his capacity. Indirectly all lead to one end through many roads. If one could look back, he would find many books serving to awaken thought, and no two enter through the same door.

Mr. Parr, of Indiana, said: Light will come from drawing a line between the science of teaching and the art of teaching. Failure comes from not distinguishing between principles and methods of applying them. Principles are the same everywhere; methods of application may differ. Until the subject of didactics is better defined, there will be lack of distinctness in the treatment of the literature of pedagogy. There is in all the books a mixture of history, philosophy, general methods and special methods. There should be a differentiation into special lines of investigation. He thought the only history of education worthy the name is the third part of Rosenkrantz's *Philosophy of Education*. Our books deal too much with the outside of didactics. The Council should direct into clear distinctions. We need a set of monographs upon the development of child-mind in various directions. We have no English history of education.

Mr. Harris, of Massachusetts, remarked: "There is a worthy contribution to the history of English education in Ross Mollinger's *History of Cambridge University*. The speaker then stated his classification of pedagogical literature under five rubrics as follows:

1. History of education, to give one his own standpoint.

2. Critical literature of pedagogical reformers, to develop one's own originality. This is usually empty conceit; but one has to begin with the idea that he is born to reform the world. Though none present an all-around truth in education, still they give hard blows in various directions.

3. Works of scientific investigators in education. Unlike reformers, scientific writers study all sides of the question. Spencer is a good illustration of the reformer whose work is useful in awakening teachers to thought. Though untrue in that it does not grasp the universal as made up of individuals, it gets teachers out of the ruts. Teachers are prone to suffer pedagogical cramp, and must bathe in the literature of the world as given by Homer, Danté, Shakespeare, and Goethe.

4. Methods of management and instruction as given in school reports. Superintendent Greenwood's suggestion is good, that reports are not completed till the statistics are digested. We need the relative growth of foreign population, number sent to college, etc., etc., all carefully digested. The superintendent should be a reader of the current literature of this kind to afford help to other teachers, and should make full reports in order to have his school known in the world. A school report rightly written is one of the best forces to foster educational interests.

5. The science itself, to be made from the data furnished, as stated, through the establishment of settled ideals and the analysis of all data. We should know that we are to grow indefinitely, placed here by the personal God with no roof to check an indefinite growth. We should study first the development of the race. The Chinese idea, developing memory only, illustrates the conservative tendency. Over against this study of the race, we need study of special developments of individual powers, such as handbooks on methods in the school-room; stories as to getting advantage of a bad boy; of teaching arithmetic in special ways, etc. "Always, however, keep bathed in the more general literature of God's methods with the race."

Mr. Richards, of Washington, asked: "Should there not be one more point added to the five—a practical demonstration of the true methods and philosophy?" He thought that while the talk of these philosophers is intended to make better teachers the effect would be better if they should show the model. He had found the actual teaching of little children the hardest task of his life, and he had a desire to see others perform it.

Mr. Greenwood thought that we might begin with China, with European works, or with those of America, yet with all the theory we gather little of the exact how-to-teach. There is no one way of teaching. The practical directions of how to do in common schools are not given. Inspiration may be gained from the works of such men as David Page. The reports of Horace Mann have inspired more teachers in this country than any other works. If there is to be a recommendation here of special works, it should be after study of previous recommendations.

Mr. Thompson, of Indiana, said that such recommendations are changing. This body may aid the authorities elsewhere.

Mr. Soldan said that he does not recognize the distinction between theory and practice. Any theory worthy the name will stand the test of practice. A teaching of one child would not be a proper test. It is true that no two schools or classes can be taught alike, i. e., in the same manner. He uses the word *method* to denote system, or principles, as used here and elsewhere.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS: THEIR OBJECTS, METHODS, AND EQUIPMENTS.

[PRESENTED BY GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD.]

Upon the urgent request of the Chairman of your Committee on Technical Education, I consented, at a very late hour, not to offer a report, but to present from the standpoint of personal experience some testimony, expert or inexperienced, as it may strike this body of experts, upon the somewhat mooted questions pertaining to agricultural colleges, or schools; their objects, methods, and equipments. I have no other ambition than to present the facts as I see them after twenty-four years of continuous work in contact with these schools, during ten of them in a place of most direct responsibility for the accomplishment. If any of my statements seem dogmatic, I beg you to believe that they merely express the courage of tested convictions, without the least desire to override others' opinions. The limits of the paper forbid extensive data; but any inquiry after the facts upon which these generalizations are based will be met with the utmost candor. So much of apology is due, since the Chairman of the Committee is not here to explain the conditions under which the task was undertaken.

The subject is one of especial interest now, because the question whether farming must be left to less and less intelligent people as civilization advances is raised in all the older states, where the original type of a farming community is changed for a worse rather than a better. The same state of things in Europe is complained of, and accounted for in part by the fact that most of the schools enhance the curiosity and interest as to the gay life of cities, and add no zest nor interest to the handling of the soil, or the feeding of a nation. Newspapers and books present a different ideal of life, and arouse for the plodding of the farm a disrespect and distaste, wholly detrimental to the preservation of our national type. Our people ask, and rightly, "Are the schools doing all that ought to be done for a rural population, the conservatory of national character?" Most of the education given in common schools is purely literary; for the smattering of science interspersed is studied in literary ways. It is knowledge about things, not of them. Hence, as the *New York Evening Post* remarks in a recent number, "It turns the child's thoughts almost wholly toward sedentary pursuits, and to places in which men swarm." In the higher schools this bias is still more patent. Many are avowedly endowed, equipped and maintained as training-places for the Christian ministry—all teachers being themselves ministers, and expected to exalt their calling at every opportunity. Others

assume a wider mission in preparing for the learned professions, including, besides preaching, the practice of law and of medicine, and teaching. Other technical schools, such as those of engineering—civil and mechanical—have had the same drift toward the teeming city, and the wealth in trade. If these great intellectual centers have connected with them large elementary schools, as many of them have, in so-called preparatory departments, these are under the same manipulation in tone and trend and kind of information given, so that multitudes drop back into rural life, not simply unsatisfied, but dissatisfied, after their taste of learning. If the universities have no elementary schools, they seek to stretch their influence of the same kind over every village high school, and these again must furnish teachers in the same tone to rural neighborhoods. So the conservatism of education is in fact against the conservatism of a well-informed and educated yeomanry.

Now the presumption is, that agricultural schools and colleges have their mission in checking this one-sided tendency. Though in organization of our land-grant colleges, agriculture and the mechanic arts were made coördinate as the leading interests, I prefer to consider now only their mission to agriculture. They have for their aim, then, the promotion of intelligence in farming, and a fuller appreciation of the ends, means, and methods of agriculture as the basis of sound progress.

Shall the higher type of farming and of farmers be sought through training a few experts in scientific agriculture, who like doctors of physic may dose to the suffering multitudes the needed potions and lotions and powders for debilitated farms? Or shall the multitudes themselves be inspired from these centers of information and thought through a widely extended elementary training in line with improved agriculture? The first thought would make the place of Agricultural Colleges, beside other professional schools, in the higher walks of a university, with barely the few students training themselves for teachers, who are not borne along with the grand tide toward the *learned* professions. The second would seek to add to this occupation some of the charm of familiar acquaintance with its interesting facts, and their relation to the world's work from the early stages of education up.

I believe in aiming at both the general interest, enthusiasm, and inquiry, and the special information of expert investigators in long and strong courses of technical training. We must build the better agriculture from what we have. To reach the farmers with any applications of science we must train the coming generations in the elements of science. The youths from the farms must find in our schools of agriculture the stimulant to scientific thoughtfulness that prepares them for better farming. Farmers can never be much benefited by ready-made information till a generation is trained to appreciate it. In fact, the schools can serve the farmers only through the youth.

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A fourth fact is beyond dispute, that the trained experts now willing and ready for these genuine investigations are largely the offspring of such elementary training. As I run over in mind the corps of able directors and assistants recently organized into the thirty-nine experiment stations provided for by Congress, I am met by this fact in almost every one. With a few notable exceptions among the older men, the multitude have come from the few relatively who have had this early training, or something akin to it. Many of the leading authorities in agricultural and horticultural matters have had their interest awakened by early education in the few such schools. For I must admit that the majority of the thirty-nine endowed colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts have drifted with the tide into university departments, or schools of technology; yet the nation looks to the minority for its real leaders toward a more perfect agricultural knowledge.

Accepting these facts as a foundation of certainty, I have studied the problem of adjustment between a genuine education in no narrow spirit of exclusiveness, and such a body of information and thought as must preserve the natural, normal interest in all that pertains to the farm and the development of farm industry. Without a taint of opposition to either the objects or the methods of the high classical training, I have watched the necessities of my problem with constantly-growing confidence in the solution which I try briefly to offer here. In my own mind, the conviction is settled that the true object to which all the forces of such an institution

should tend, is such discipline of body, mind and sympathies as shall give strength for the task of elevating agriculture while the every-day surroundings add to the natural curiosity about seeds, soils, moisture, heat, germination, and fertilization, variation in plant and animal, adaptation of parts and of forces. In all of this there is abundant room for the truest discipline of perceptive powers, of judgment in all the phases of thought—comparison, abstraction, generalization, classification, and abstruse reasoning, and the most natural cultivation of memory and imagination. Above all, the true philanthropy that seeks each man's good in all men's good, should pervade the whole with the widest intelligence of the world's wants always at hand. To be more explicit, the object is neither to make a set of trained hands for the farmer—not even to graduate farmers, if you please—nor to follow established ruts of discipline which lead the bulk of thoughts and sympathies away from the farm; but to give genuine education in the humanities through those elements of knowledge which teach humanity most.

That such an object is definite enough to be distinctly gained, is proved by the work of several institutions of established fame whose graduates are men of influence, showing their discipline in just such humanitarian efforts as we seek. Whether farmers, physicians, lawyers, editors, or even preachers, their thoughtful sympathies reach to such work.

To secure this object, under the present conditions in most of the states, the following methods are commended upon the test of experience verified by extended observation:

First, students must be able to reach the advantages of such an institution directly from their rural homes. Whatever preparatory training is needed must be given by the schools at home, if possible; if not, by the institution. Any required examination at admission must be suited to the methods of the rural schools, and in no way is even a seeming advantage to be given to a city grading system as a means of access. Of all things, any form of recognizing preparatory schools which cannot readily apply to the common district school breaks the continuity between the agricultural home and the agricultural college.

Second, the course of study must present essential discipline in lines of most direct interest. The *mother tongue* stands first as the key to knowledge, the instrument of clear thought, and the medium of influence. If circumstances indicate that such training can be best given by comparison with another related language, living or dead, it may be used, but always subsidiary to the native language. In general, with the common methods of teaching, attention to English in all its simplicity and complexity, its derivations, combinations, and growth and associations within itself will give better results within an ordinary four-years course, than can be given through any mere smattering of other tongues.

Of next importance, and coördinate in time, must be the discipline of perceptive and reasoning faculties through the science of nature with abun-

dant illustrations from the very things which the students themselves have handled. Botany, chemistry, mineralogy, entomology, comparative anatomy, physiology, zoölogy, and geology make a series so full of constant adaptations to previous curiosity as to give new zest to the problems of farm life. These applications may be wisely *emphasized* in special groups where information is given as to practical questions in raising and handling crops and domestic animals, trees and garden vegetables, with the chemistry of growth and decay, provided these groups are carefully adjusted to the mastery of the elementary sciences. Of equal importance in the discipline is a series of lessons in such intuitions as pure and applied mathematics afford, with sufficient introspection to arouse interest in the process of thinking, feeling, and willing, as well as in the results. With these, and illustrative of their bearing upon human welfare, there must be enough of history, including geography, to show the tendencies of civilization, if not the complex forces promoting it, and the essential principles of national economy and government. The grand essentials in all this are two: the principles shall be truly scientific as broad as all the facts; the illustrations and applications shall fit into the life of the farmer's sons and daughters who study them.

Third, all these studies should have awakened appetite for further research; but to cultivate this, outlines of study and investigation may be suggested, such as any careful student may follow. If these lead to a second degree, the incentive is stronger and the work more definite and original; therefore, more practical as a part of real education. If, in these second, or post-graduate courses, it is feasible to combine art with science and science with art, we have the best conditions possible for genuine advancement of agriculture by a truly trained body of workers all along the line.

Fourth, it seems to me essential to such a plan of education that every youth should have his interest in the details of farming kept alive by some responsibility in actual service. Much of these details can be made instructive—illustrative of principles in the art and related sciences; but if it should be only indirectly so, the care and attention required in a few hours each week of ordinary manual labor make real the lessons in agriculture. Even the friction of such a requirement may be turned to advantage in exalting the importance of a host of details out of which most interesting problems grow. Such work brings the student into direct contact with improved methods and means, as well as with questions under investigation, arouses curiosity, and develops ingenuity, without which all the information of the cyclopædias is useless on the farm, or to the farmers. It stands in the relation of laboratory practice to the chemist.

Fifth, special opportunities for development of higher ideals and better appreciation of the importance of a true agriculture occur all through the course. The special courses of lectures show that it has a character—a body of principles. General lectures touch it on every side, incidentally. Even

strangers bear incidental testimony by their interest and enthusiasm. Societies, clubs and institutes find room for discussion of questions pertaining to prevailing practices and false notions. Science is not degraded, but exalted, by such association with actual illustrations. With such surroundings, any student of fair abilities is fitted by both interest and training to share in the gatherings of farmers and horticulturists with influence.

But to accomplish all this, there is required no mean equipment. Unity of purpose must be shown throughout, and unity in execution is equally essential. An essentially continuous board of control must maintain a settled policy, apparent in the whole equipment. Incongruities are as destructive here as they would be in a theological seminary. Let me emphasize a few essentials by distinct enumeration.

First, the location must be a farm in so far as growing farm crops, orchards, vineyards, and gardens make a prominent part of the everyday surroundings. If it can be so near a town as to preclude all need of dormitories and consequent abnormal excitement, the gain is evident. For the interest of townspeople in such a farm, with all its possible attractiveness, gives the students a pride in their college, while the worst of gregarious vices and untoward influences are escaped. Moreover, the need of the multitude of regulations which diminish the manliness of students is not felt. With homes among the townspeople, home life retains its influence.

Second, the buildings should show their character as made for business. Class-rooms and chapel, library and reading-room should be so adjusted to laboratories, shops, barns, greenhouses, as to express the combination of thought with labor, and the expectation that students may be called from one to the other as occasion offers. If all are so connected by a system of bells, struck by an electric clock, that all classes move in and out together, the unity is felt still more.

Third, every science must vie with every other for the best of apparatus, especially in the lines of investigation and research. The liberal provision for the tools of the botanist, chemist, physicist, draftsman, and zoölogist must stand beside an equally liberal supply in shop and barn. But they must all be *tools*, not mere curiosities.

Fourth, the live stock of the farm must serve the purpose of the farm as a school. It must illustrate the breeds and the principles of breeding, and show that it has that purpose. While the idea of profit and loss can never be separated from good farming, it must here be confined to the handling of a given group of stock, or the manipulation of certain crops. To manage a school for profit would be to forget the object of the school; and such a farm is as truly to be managed for instruction's sake as a chemical laboratory. Economical provision for instruction is the only profit to be thought of.

Fifth, the working cabinets in all the special sciences must be of the best; but their purpose, too, should appear. The great museum of every conceiv-

able curiosity may serve a useful purpose as a stimulant; but it is also distracting. It at times serves for a place of harmless dissipation. The unity of a working cabinet stimulates to thought, and entices a student to definite inquiry.

Sixth, such a school needs a more stable and carefully selected faculty than an ordinary college. With the definite idea of applied science in a school, more instructors are needed; and where one general purpose is to be served, the unity of growth is essential. Such a body of trained workers must have ways of sympathizing with and testing each other's work. Jealousies, if they arise, must be subordinated to the common interest by common responsibilities. The faculty as a body must control through their president, not the president over the faculty; for the voice of the least member must be heard for the whole. In this way, unity in real interests may be maintained, and a symmetrical growth reached.

Seventh, and last, some vital connection with the world of workers on the farms of the state is essential. It must be apparent always that the usefulness of the college to the farming community is of chief importance. Its board of control must be representative men of the class to appreciate the needs and the work. The members of the faculty must be able to show their interest in the same work by meeting the farmers' questions upon their own ground. Farmers' institutes, where farmers and professors may "talk back" to each other in mutual interest, serve the purpose far better than elaborate courses of lectures from a platform controlled by the professors. Yet beyond the possibility of such work, which in the nature of the case must be limited, the college must be a source of general information upon the topics most vital to successful farming. If occasional bulletins will answer such a purpose, let them be provided for, and let the stated reports be full and explicit from all departments of the work. In my own experience, a weekly issue of the college paper, edited by the faculty, and recording every worthy item of growth or interest, has proved of inestimable advantage as a means of communication with patrons and the press of the state. Published at a moderate price to subscribers generally, it is sent free of charge to the parents of all students, and to all newspapers, most of which recognize the courtesy by exchange. This has proved the cheapest and the best means yet devised of advertising in the right place, while it keeps the faculty as editors alive to the needs of the people whom they serve.

A glance backward over the requisites named will show that all this provides a general rather than a technical education; but such a one as will best fit for such technical training as our purpose indicates, while one who stops short of the completion of a course has gained in the very line of his best growth on the farm. In such a course the sons of farmers and mechanics can work side by side to the advantage of both. With a slight variation in illustrative applications, the daughters, too, may have equal

education in sympathy with the work of life. With five hundred such students, an institution of this kind becomes a power among the people.

In conclusion, I must beg the pardon of the Council again, if any seeming dogmatism has attended the almost bald assertions which make up this paper. It is the farthest possible from my intention. I shall hear the opinions of others as patiently as you have heard mine.

GEO. T. FAIRCHILD.

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING PAPER.

[REPORTED BY JOHN HANCOCK.]

Mr. Harris, though not a farmer himself, claimed to be a descendant of farmers, and had taken a good deal of interest in the work of farmers at his home in far-away Massachusetts. He regarded agricultural colleges as great blessings to the people. He inquired whether these schools had investigated certain questions in agricultural chemistry which he deemed to be of great practical importance, and to which he had seen no satisfactory answers. One of these questions was, "Does the deprivation of light have an effect to cause air to deposit some of its nitrogen?" He wanted an explanation of the reason why untilled land produced a sparse vegetation, while the earth overturned and frequently stirred was far more fruitful. He thought there should be more experimenting among farmers and in agricultural colleges. He also thought when youth were properly instructed in agricultural schools, they would be able to show the Knights of Labor the fallacies of Henry George's land theories. Agriculture should be studied in connection with commerce. Farmers attack railroads, and Knights of Labor attack the farmers, because of the narrowness of the view of each. The farmer does not receive his share of daily wages among other workers. The lesson we draw from this is that farmers do not earn as much when working together as a separate class, as when working with manufacturers and men of other occupations. He believed the organizing of a system of experiments, and of correspondence on the results of such experiments, the best work in which agricultural schools can engage.

President Fairchild said in reply to Dr. Harris's question upon nitrogen, that special experiment into the origin of nitrogen in plants had "been in progress in our laboratory for the past two years, and would be reported at their completion. The problem is a very complex one, from the many modifying circumstances."

Mr. Hancock — Are not most of the graduates of agricultural colleges drained off into other vocations than that of farming?

Pres. Fairchild — When students complete their course they are frequently almost helpless as to their pecuniary means. Hence a large portion of them go into teaching.

In further answer, President Fairchild gave a summary of the occupations in which the graduates of the Kansas Agricultural College have engaged. The 87 male graduates are engaged in business as follows:

Farmers.....	20	General business men.....	8
Fruit-grower.....	1	Mechanics.....	2
Teachers in public schools.....	8	Printers.....	2
Lawyers and students of law.....	12	Banker.....	1
Stenographer.....	1	Editors.....	6
Army officer.....	1	Engineers and students in engineering.....	5
Teachers and students of special science.....	5	Observer — Signal Service.....	1
Doctors and students of medicine.....	4	Veterinary surgeon.....	1
Dentist.....	1	Manufacturer.....	1
Ministers and students of theology.....	4		

Three have died.

what suits his capacity. Indirectly all lead to one end through many roads. If one could look back, he would find many books serving to awaken thought, and no two enter through the same door.

Mr. Parr, of Indiana, said: Light will come from drawing a line between the science of teaching and the art of teaching. Failure comes from not distinguishing between principles and methods of applying them. Principles are the same everywhere; methods of application may differ. Until the subject of didactics is better defined, there will be lack of distinctness in the treatment of the literature of pedagogy. There is in all the books a mixture of history, philosophy, general methods and special methods. There should be a differentiation into special lines of investigation. He thought the only history of education worthy the name is the third part of Rosenkrantz's *Philosophy of Education*. Our books deal too much with the outside of didactics. The Council should direct into clear distinctions. We need a set of monographs upon the development of child-mind in various directions. We have no English history of education.

Mr. Harris, of Massachusetts, remarked: "There is a worthy contribution to the history of English education in Ross Mollinger's *History of Cambridge University*." The speaker then stated his classification of pedagogical literature under five rubrics as follows:

1. History of education, to give one his own standpoint.
2. Critical literature of pedagogical reformers, to develop one's own originality. This is usually empty conceit; but one has to begin with the idea that he is born to reform the world. Though none present an all-around truth in education, still they give hard blows in various directions.
3. Works of scientific investigators in education. Unlike reformers, scientific writers study all sides of the question. Spencer is a good illustration of the reformer whose work is useful in awakening teachers to thought. Though untrue in that it does not grasp the universal as made up of individuals, it gets teachers out of the ruts. Teachers are prone to suffer pedagogical cramp, and must bathe in the literature of the world as given by Homer, Danté, Shakespeare, and Goethe.
4. Methods of management and instruction as given in school reports. Superintendent Greenwood's suggestion is good, that reports are not completed till the statistics are digested. We need the relative growth of foreign population, numbers sent to college, etc., etc., all carefully digested. The superintendent should be a reader of the current literature of this kind to afford help to other teachers, and should make full reports in order to have his school known in the world. A school report rightly written is one of the best forces to foster educational interests.
5. The science itself, to be made from the data furnished, as stated, through the establishment of settled ideals and the analysis of all data. We should know that we are to grow indefinitely, placed here by the personal God with no roof to check an indefinite growth. We should study first the development of the race. The Chinese idea, developing memory only, illustrates the conservative tendency. Over against this study of the race, we need study of special developments of individual powers, such as handbooks on methods in the school-room; stories as to getting advantage of a bad boy; of teaching arithmetic in special ways, etc. "Always, however, keep bathed in the more general literature of God's methods with the race."

Mr. Richards, of Washington, asked: "Should there not be one more point added to the five--a practical demonstration of the true methods and philosophy?" He thought that while the talk of these philosophers is intended to make better teachers, the effect would be better if they should show the model. He had found the actual teaching of little children the hardest task of his life, and he had a desire to see others perform it.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. Greenwood thought that we might begin with China, with European work with those of America, yet with all the theory we gather little of the exact how to teach. There is no one way of teaching. The practical directions of how to run common schools are not given. Inspiration may be gained from the works of men as David Page. The reports of Horace Mann have inspired more teachers in this country than any other works. If there is to be a recommendation hereafter, it should be after study of previous recommendations.

Mr. Thompson, of Indiana, said that such recommendations are changing. No body may aid the authorities elsewhere.

Mr. Soldan said that he does not recognize the distinction between theory and practice. Any theory worthy the name will stand the test of practice. A test of one child would not be a proper test. It is true that no two schools or classes can be taught alike, i. e., in the same manner. He uses the word *method* to denote system, or principles, as used here and elsewhere.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS: THEIR OBJECTS, METHODS, AND EQUIPMENTS.

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That such an object is definite enough to be distinctly gained, is proved by the work of several institutions of established fame whose graduates are men of influence, showing their discipline in just such humanitarian efforts as we seek. Whether farmers, physicians, lawyers, editors, or even preachers, their thoughtful sympathies reach to such work.

To secure this object, under the present conditions in most of the states, the following methods are commended upon the test of experience verified by extended observation:

First, students must be able to reach the advantages of such an institution directly from their rural homes. Whatever preparatory training is needed must be given by the schools at home, if possible; if not, by the institution. Any required examination at admission must be suited to the methods of the rural schools, and in no way is even a seeming advantage to be given to a city grading system as a means of access. Of all things, any form of recognizing preparatory schools which cannot readily apply to the common district school breaks the continuity between the agricultural home and the agricultural college.

Second, the course of study must present essential discipline in lines of most direct interest. The *mother tongue* stands first as the key to knowledge, the instrument of clear thought, and the medium of influence. If circumstances indicate that such training can be best given by comparison with another related language, living or dead, it may be used, but always subsidiary to the native language. In general, with the common methods of teaching, attention to English in all its simplicity and complexity, its derivations, combinations, and growth and associations within itself will give better results within an ordinary four-years course, than can be given through any mere smattering of other tongues.

Of next importance, and coördinate in time, must be the discipline of perceptive and reasoning faculties through the science of nature with abun-

dant illustrations from the very things which the students themselves have handled. Botany, chemistry, mineralogy, entomology, comparative anatomy, physiology, zoölogy, and geology make a series so full of constant adaptations to previous curiosity as to give new zest to the problems of farm life. These applications may be wisely *emphasized* in special groups where information is given as to practical questions in raising and handling crops and domestic animals, trees and garden vegetables, with the chemistry of growth and decay, provided these groups are carefully adjusted to the mastery of the elementary sciences. Of equal importance in the discipline is a series of lessons in such intuitions as pure and applied mathematics afford, with sufficient introspection to arouse interest in the process of thinking, feeling, and willing, as well as in the results. With these, and illustrative of their bearing upon human welfare, there must be enough of history, including geography, to show the tendencies of civilization, if not the complex forces promoting it, and the essential principles of national economy and government. The grand essentials in all this are two: the principles shall be truly scientific as broad as all the facts; the illustrations and applications shall fit into the life of the farmer's sons and daughters who study them.

Third, all these studies should have awakened appetite for further research; but to cultivate this, outlines of study and investigation may be suggested, such as any careful student may follow. If these lead to a second degree, the incentive is stronger and the work more definite and original; therefore, more practical as a part of real education. If, in these second, or post-graduate courses, it is feasible to combine art with science and science with art, we have the best conditions possible for genuine advancement of agriculture by a truly trained body of workers all along the line.

Fourth, it seems to me essential to such a plan of education that every youth should have his interest in the details of farming kept alive by some responsibility in actual service. Much of these details can be made instructive—illustrative of principles in the art and related sciences; but if it should be only indirectly so, the care and attention required in a few hours each week of ordinary manual labor make real the lessons in agriculture. Even the friction of such a requirement may be turned to advantage in exalting the importance of a host of details out of which most interesting problems grow. Such work brings the student into direct contact with improved methods and means, as well as with questions under investigation, arouses curiosity, and develops ingenuity, without which all the information of the cyclopædias is useless on the farm, or to the farmers. It stands in the relation of laboratory practice to the chemist.

Fifth, special opportunities for development of higher ideals and better appreciation of the importance of a true agriculture occur all through the course. The special courses of lectures show that it has a character—a body of principles. General lectures touch it on every side, incidentally. Even

strangers bear incidental testimony by their interest and enthusiasm. Societies, clubs and institutes find room for discussion of questions pertaining to prevailing practices and false notions. Science is not degraded, but exalted, by such association with actual illustrations. With such surroundings, any student of fair abilities is fitted by both interest and training to share in the gatherings of farmers and horticulturists with influence.

But to accomplish all this, there is required no mean equipment. Unity of purpose must be shown throughout, and unity in execution is equally essential. An essentially continuous board of control must maintain a settled policy, apparent in the whole equipment. Incongruities are as destructive here as they would be in a theological seminary. Let me emphasize a few essentials by distinct enumeration.

First, the location must be a farm in so far as growing farm crops, orchards, vineyards, and gardens make a prominent part of the everyday surroundings. If it can be so near a town as to preclude all need of dormitories and consequent abnormal excitement, the gain is evident. For the interest of townspeople in such a farm, with all its possible attractiveness, gives the students a pride in their college, while the worst of gregarious vices and untoward influences are escaped. Moreover, the need of the multitude of regulations which diminish the manliness of students is not felt. With homes among the townspeople, home life retains its influence.

Second, the buildings should show their character as made for business. Class-rooms and chapel, library and reading-room should be so adjusted to laboratories, shops, barns, greenhouses, as to express the combination of thought with labor, and the expectation that students may be called from one to the other as occasion offers. If all are so connected by a system of bells, struck by an electric clock, that all classes move in and out together, the unity is felt still more.

Third, every science must vie with every other for the best of apparatus, especially in the lines of investigation and research. The liberal provision of the tools of the botanist, chemist, physicist, draftsman, and zoölogist must stand beside an equally liberal supply in shop and barn. But they must all be *tools*, not mere curiosities.

Fourth, the live stock of the farm must serve the purpose of the farm as school. It must illustrate the breeds and the principles of breeding, and show that it has that purpose. While the idea of profit and loss can never be separated from good farming, it must here be confined to the handling of a given group of stock, or the manipulation of certain crops. To manage a school for profit would be to forget the object of the school; and such a farm is as truly to be managed for instruction's sake as a chemical laboratory. Economical provision for instruction is the only profit to be sought of.

Fifth, the working cabinets in all the special sciences must be of the best; and their purpose, too, should appear. The great museum of every conceivable

able curiosity may serve a useful purpose as a stimulant; but it is also *dis*-tracting. It at times serves for a place of harmless dissipation. The unity of a working cabinet stimulates to thought, and entices a student to definite inquiry.

Sixth, such a school needs a more stable and carefully selected faculty than an ordinary college. With the definite idea of applied science in a school, more instructors are needed; and where one general purpose is to be served, the unity of growth is essential. Such a body of trained workers must have ways of sympathizing with and testing each other's work. Jealousies, if they arise, must be subordinated to the common interest by common responsibilities. The faculty as a body must control through their president, not the president over the faculty; for the voice of the least member must be heard for the whole. In this way, unity in real interests may be maintained, and a symmetrical growth reached.

Seventh, and last, some vital connection with the world of workers on the farms of the state is essential. It must be apparent always that the usefulness of the college to the farming community is of chief importance. Its board of control must be representative men of the class to appreciate the needs and the work. The members of the faculty must be able to show their interest in the same work by meeting the farmers' questions upon their own ground. Farmers' institutes, where farmers and professors may "talk back" to each other in mutual interest, serve the purpose far better than elaborate courses of lectures from a platform controlled by the professors. Yet beyond the possibility of such work, which in the nature of the case must be limited, the college must be a source of general information upon the topics most vital to successful farming. If occasional bulletins will answer such a purpose, let them be provided for, and let the stated reports be full and explicit from all departments of the work. In my own experience, a weekly issue of the college paper, edited by the faculty, and recording every worthy item of growth or interest, has proved of inestimable advantage as a means of communication with patrons and the press of the state. Published at a moderate price to subscribers generally, it is sent free of charge to the parents of all students, and to all newspapers, most of which recognize the courtesy by exchange. This has proved the cheapest and the best means yet devised of advertising in the right place, while it keeps the faculty as editors alive to the needs of the people whom they serve.

A glance backward over the requisites named will show that all this provides a general rather than a technical education; but such a one as will best fit for such technical training as our purpose indicates, while one who stops short of the completion of a course has gained in the very line of his best growth on the farm. In such a course the sons of farmers and mechanics can work side by side to the advantage of both. With a slight variation in illustrative applications, the daughters, too, may have equal

education in sympathy with the work of life. With five hundred such students, an institution of this kind becomes a power among the people.

In conclusion, I must beg the pardon of the Council again, if any seeming dogmatism has attended the almost bald assertions which make up this paper. It is the farthest possible from my intention. I shall hear the opinions of others as patiently as you have heard mine.

GEO. T. FAIRCHILD.

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING PAPER.

[REPORTED BY JOHN HANCOCK.]

Mr. Harris, though not a farmer himself, claimed to be a descendant of farmers, and had taken a good deal of interest in the work of farmers at his home in far-away Massachusetts. He regarded agricultural colleges as great blessings to the people. He inquired whether these schools had investigated certain questions in agricultural chemistry which he deemed to be of great practical importance, and to which he had seen no satisfactory answers. One of these questions was, "Does the deprivation of light have an effect to cause air to deposit some of its nitrogen?" He wanted an explanation of the reason why untilled land produced a sparse vegetation, while the earth overturned and frequently stirred was far more fruitful. He thought there should be more experimenting among farmers and in agricultural colleges. He also thought when youth were properly instructed in agricultural schools, they would be able to show the Knights of Labor the fallacies of Henry George's land theories. Agriculture should be studied in connection with commerce. Farmers attack railroads, and Knights of Labor attack the farmers, because of the narrowness of the view of each. The farmer does not receive his share of daily wages among other workers. The lesson we draw from this is that farmers do not earn as much when working together as a separate class, as when working with manufacturers and men of other occupations. He believed the organizing of a system of experiments, and of correspondence on the results of such experiments, the best work in which agricultural schools can engage.

President Fairchild said in reply to Dr. Harris's question upon nitrogen, that special experiment into the origin of nitrogen in plants had "been in progress in our laboratory for the past two years, and would be reported at their completion. The problem is a very complex one, from the many modifying circumstances."

Mr. Hancock—Are not most of the graduates of agricultural colleges drained off into other vocations than that of farming?

Pres. Fairchild—When students complete their course they are frequently almost helpless as to their pecuniary means. Hence a large portion of them go into teaching.

In further answer, President Fairchild gave a summary of the occupations in which the graduates of the Kansas Agricultural College have engaged. The 87 male graduates are engaged in business as follows:

Farmers.....	20	General business men.....	8
Fruit-grower.....	1	Mechanics.....	2
Teachers in public schools.....	8	Printers.....	2
Lawyers and students of law.....	12	Banker.....	1
Stenographer.....	1	Editors.....	6
Army officer.....	1	Engineers and students in engineering.....	5
Teachers and students of special science.....	5	Observer—Signal Service.....	1
Doctors and students of medicine.....	4	Veterinary surgeon.....	1
Dentist.....	1	Manufacturer.....	1
Ministers and students of theology.....	4		

Three have died.

Mr. Sheldon—Is any attention paid in agricultural colleges to the invention and improvement of agricultural implements?

Pres. Fairchild—We have no special department devoted to this purpose, but the matter is not neglected.

Mr. Canfield believed the influence of agricultural colleges not confined to their graduates. He thought the students who enter college, but do not graduate, go back to the farm and exercise a powerful influence on agricultural methods.

Mr. Peabody—The Agricultural University of Illinois adds its testimony to the statistics given by President Fairchild. He was not willing to concede that the schools of our country are causing the young men of the country to drift into the cities. Other causes lead to this.

Mr. Peabody further said that he was not willing to confess judgment against the public schools, as tending to drift the young people toward the cities, particularly from the farms. He did not believe that the aggregation in cities and towns comes from the farms. In Illinois the ratio of farms, and therefore of farmers, to the whole population of the state, has changed but slightly during the last forty years. Firstly. The number of farms has increased, not simply because more land has been taken up and cultivated, but because the farms have been subdivided, so that the average area of farms in Illinois is now less than 124 acres each. Secondly. The number of farms in the state was, in the decade 1840–50, 10 per cent. of the whole population of the state; in the decade 1850–60, it was 11 per cent.; in 1860–70, 11½ per cent.; in 1870–80, it was 11 per cent.—and these ratios remain in spite of the phenomenal development of the great city of Chicago, which during the time covered has grown from less than 20,000 to nearly 800,000 people. This growth, if it had come in wholly from the outside, would have reduced the ratios given; and the fact that they remain as stated shows that the drift has not been of the nature so often described, sending the farmers and their sons in masses into the towns.

This movement has come from another class, and for another cause—the multiplication of machines has deprived multitudes of mechanics of the means of obtaining a living, and those so disfranchised have gone to the towns or to the farms.

Others have found that their small businesses have gravitated in their growth toward larger fields of operations, and therefore toward towns and cities. This drift comes from the changed conditions of business, and is not in any way a consequence of the education given in the public schools.

President Pickard—Do you not find the Illinois farmers a very intelligent portion of the community?

Mr. Peabody—I believe them fully up to the average, and constantly growing in the direction of higher intelligence.

Mr. Harris thought that it was not a thing to be regretted that the farmers sent their bright boys to the cities. The cities needed such boys even more than the farms. In our civilization he thought one in every ten of our people could be spared for the enlightenment of the community. Besides, since the great improvements in agricultural machinery we do not need so many farmers as formerly.

Mr. Greenwood—A point in favor of agricultural colleges is the fact that ours is the great agricultural country of the world. He agreed with Mr. Canfield, that the influence of these colleges is not to be measured by the number of graduates.

Mr. Thompson found the most difficult problem in our agricultural colleges is how to get farmers' boys to attend. The cause of this seems to be that the farmer does not yet sufficiently appreciate the need of education for farmers. Not more than eight per cent. of the students of Purdue University take the farmer's course. Perhaps this may be somewhat owing to the fact that the graduate of an agricul-

tural college cannot get one dollar a month more for his work than an ordinary uneducated laborer.

Mr. King wished to know whether the agricultural college disseminated such information as would stimulate boys to desire an agricultural education.

Pres. Fairchild said these colleges do reach widely into general educational matters. Information is given that such studies as botany and entomology may be taught in the common schools. Seventy-five per cent. of our pupils are from our farms.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

[PREPARED BY J. W. STEARNS AND PRESENTED BY ZALMON RICHARDS.]

WASTE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

I.

Waste in school-work results either from defective plans or from defective methods. The purpose of this paper will be to consider, in the main, the waste in elementary education resulting from defects in our current plans or programs. It is assumed that the fundamental tests of a school program are two: 1st. Does it conform to the natural order of development of the minds of the pupils? 2d. Does it also conform as effectively as possible to the needs of our communities? The mere statement of these principles draws attention to the fact that, while the first is comparatively fixed and unchanging, the second necessarily varies with the development of our social and industrial life. The material which shall make up our program is determined essentially by the needs of our communities, and its study is therefore a branch of sociology; the disposition of this material depends upon the intellectual development of the pupils, and is determined, therefore, by a rational psychology and by experience. Clear as this distinction is, it is often overlooked, and much profitless discussion is the result.

We have, as the basis of our work, a traditional program, the main elements of which have approved themselves to both reason and experience as entitled to the place assigned to them. Our practical problem is, therefore, the adjustment of this to the new demands arising out of the progress of the last century. This has been chiefly in the lines of (1) political liberty, (2) scientific knowledge, and (3) industrial development. Each of these calls for some modifications of the program of elementary education, through which alone the schools directly affect the great body of the people. To put the case briefly, the elementary schools are called upon to give to their pupils more serious and systematic instruction in civics, in science, and in industry. It seems impossible to question that these demands are in accordance with the needs of our communities; it is quite generally admitted that children of the age referred to are capable of being naturally and profitably developed through instruction in these lines; the difficulty, we are told, lies in our already overcrowded programs, and in the scarcity of competent teachers. The latter can be supplied in time through the efficient use of agencies already in operation; but how shall we overcome the other?

These considerations make the inquiry into the existence of waste in our present schools of great practical importance. This inquiry will be most

satisfactorily pursued by first seeking a clear apprehension of what waste in education is, and then developing a few simple tests of its existence.

It is a mistake to assume that waste in education is always doing that which is useless, or employing more time in securing results than is actually necessary. These are both forms of waste, but not its most insidious forms. The doing of that which is less useful in place of that which is more useful is the more common and more dangerous sort. The making of a perfect program is choosing out of the many things which might be done the few which it is most profitable to do. Whenever profitable things to do are chosen in place of more profitable things which might be done, there is waste. It is not a sufficient defense of any school practice, or any element of a school program, to show that it is useful; we demand, further, a reasonable assurance that it is as useful as anything which can be put in its place. The point is of great importance, because the common custom is to rest the defense of school practices upon a showing of their utility, instead of showing their greater utility as the case demands. Waste, then, may be defined as the failure to turn the time and effort of the pupils to the best possible account.

Without assuming to state exhaustively the principles through the violation of which waste results in our programs, we may name the more important as follows: (1) The principle of necessity; (2) the principle of combination; (3) the principle of utilization; (4) the principle of self-help; and (5) the principle of intermittence.

(1) The principle of necessity is practically most valuable when stated negatively. It is, "not to teach what is not needed." It is very general in character, and is the chief test to be applied to the matter presented in each subject of instruction. We are to understand "needed" as indicating both what the pupil requires for immediate use and what is essential to systematic growth. Teaching matter already familiar to the pupils, or which they will learn for themselves by the time it is needed, is pure waste, and no exquisite art in doing this can ever make it worth doing. In language-work especially this error is to be constantly guarded against. Five years hence our pupils will speak and write just as well if they have not had a good many of our present ingenious primary drills; and we must jealously exclude all work which seems to justify Rousseau's paradox that the main end of elementary instruction is to waste time.

(2) The principle of combination affirms that the more useful ends an exercise subserves, the more valuable it is. We have listened too exclusively to one voice, enjoining us to "teach one thing at a time;" and this excessive analytic tendency sometimes makes school-work thin and barren. The voice we need to hear is that of Jacotot proclaiming that "all is in all," so that when we teach little we may teach much. Real growth results from the interpenetration and integration of various knowledge and discipline; and we should plan so as to restore, as far as possible, the vital, organic unity of

knowledge, which our technical divisions for teaching are obscuring. It is not without reason that some school programs have been called "soul-disintegrating." They are overcrowded by needless and devitalizing separations of matters that should be done together. Illustrations of this appear in the general features and in the details of school programs. A large part of school-work in language is pure superfluity. Language is an instrument for the expression of thought, and is properly learned, not by tinkering sentences, but by expressing thought. It is an integral part of every good school exercise, and power with it comes from these, and from reading, and from social intercourse. Again, skill in arithmetic consists in accuracy of computation applied to correct logical analysis; but by the multiplication of "cases" with rules and illustrative examples this essential unity is obscured in the mind of teacher and pupil, and mechanical processes are set up in place of it.

(3) The principle of utilization, were it not for the necessity of emphasizing it, would properly appear as a detail of the preceding. It affirms that every attainment should be turned to its proper use, as fast and as far as possible, and further attainment in general should be sought in connection with use. The limitation will be most conveniently considered under the principle of intermittence. After sufficient mastery of the initial difficulties in reading is secured, growth is attained, not by the routine reading-class drills, which count for very little, but by turning the acquisition to account as a means of entertainment, and of acquiring information. We read to get something, and getting something is at once the reward of reading and the test of its success. It is doubtful whether all readers above the Fourth are not superfluous, a misdirection of effort, which, by inverting means and end, mechanicalizes school-work, and dulls the edge of the pupil's interest. Penmanship, in a similar way, intrudes itself fruitlessly as a special exercise into school programs, after its improvement should be mainly secured in subordination to other ends.

(4) The principle of self-help applies more vitally to methods than to programs, but cannot be overlooked by the makers of the latter. It demands that the pupil be thrown as much as possible upon his own resources; be taught to observe and think for himself, instead of merely to receive. It demands, in the making of school programs, the abandonment of the effort to drill into the memory all the details of knowledge and its applications which a pupil is at all likely to need, and the substitution for it of the cultivation of right habits, good sense, and sound judgment. Under its application, most of the meager, dry-as-dust generalizations which make up the text of our common-school geographies will be ignored, and the pupil be equipped to find out what he needs to know from maps and books, with a well-formed habit of doing so. His arithmetic will shrink up to very moderate dimensions, and exact less of his time; and his teacher in language will not consider it necessary to drill him in writing telegrams, advertise

ments, and notices of public meetings. What an artificial intellect we are making when we think it necessary to furnish it with such minute details!

(5) The principle of intermittence is related to the laws of mental development. Mind and body come slowly to maturity, and what is well-nigh impossible at one stage is easily and quickly acquired at another. Because the completely rational view of the subjects of elementary education is not attainable before the pupil is fourteen or fifteen years of age, it does not follow that he must be kept for eight or nine years steadily marking time in each of them. When in any subject the degree of knowledge and skill appropriate to the pupil's age is attained, further systematic exercises may well be intermitted until he is mature enough to make another real advance. In this matter much yet remains to be learned by a proper combination of theory and experiment; but it seems certain that in the readjustments which are inevitable its importance will be more fully recognized than heretofore. Especially is this true when, in the interval, forms of utilization of what has been acquired are available. In such branches as reading and penmanship, for example, it seems certain that after the initial training which brings the art to the point of utility, periods of dependence upon utilization may properly alternate with brief periods of special training adapted to the higher general development of mind and body which has supervened.

II.

The application of any principles of criticism to existing programs should be conservative and closely attendant upon experience. The difficulty of it in a paper like this is greatly increased by the diversity of usages in different schools and in different sections of the country. What seems most likely to be useful, is some indication of the manner in which the new elements demanded by the needs of the times are tending to adjust themselves in existing schemes.

An examination of the historical development of school programs during the last twenty years shows the following tendencies with reference to the chief topics now demanding admission:

1. Elementary science is finding a footing in the oral and language-work. This seems an eminently desirable combination, inasmuch as it furnishes opportunity for the pupil to express accurately the results of his own observations; and, on the other hand, under wise direction may serve as a means of cultivating accurate observation and even original research. We have as yet only begun to utilize, in an imperfect way, the means of training which further intelligent and systematic effort will make available in this direction. Without the addition of one hour to the schedule times allowed to oral and language lessons, it will be possible to introduce all that rational reformers deem desirable in this matter by simply substituting well-selected scientific subjects in place of trivial exercises now in use. But science is finding its way into school-work at another place, where experience is show-

ing that it has been thin and barren. There are now accessible several series of science readers adapted to different grades of school-work. These make the reading exercise what it should be—a means of getting something out of books, and something consecutive and tolerably coherent. While it is not desirable that such books should take the whole time of the reading exercise, their value as a means of stimulating curiosity and broadening the mind with fruitful knowledge, thus supplementing successfully the oral training, which keeps closer to the spirit and method of science, will hardly be called in question. The work most needed at present in the development of programs is properly to adjust these two lines of growth in elementary science to each other and to the whole of school exercises, and to make them as valuable as possible.

2. Civics shows a tendency, as yet less pronounced, to the same lines of growth. History naturally comes to the child as a series of stories, and these are apt material for language exercises. Like the first lessons of elementary science, they lead up to geography, which they serve to invest with a vital, human interest. Some knowledge of plants and animals, and of historic events, makes geography, which localizes them in space, a necessity and a delight. They ought to grow about it for a time, and then it in turn should grow about them. Geography is but a means to the larger interests of science and of man, and we should probably gain much by hastening forward to these interests as soon as a tolerable basis is fairly secured, and keeping the other subordinate, but growing. It seems not improbable that all the time necessary for acquiring a child's knowledge of the history of the United States, and of England, might be taken from the usual schedule time of geography without real detriment to the latter study. The ease with which children are interested in history suitably narrated makes the total omission of it from the majority of elementary programs all the more surprising, and we can attribute it only to the force of tradition, and to failure to study independently the elements of program-making. The deplorable result is, that the great majority of children leave our schools without any instruction in the history of their own country. Whether it be substituted for part of the geography, or as part of the reading, let children of ten years of age have some instruction in the history of the United States.

Some knowledge of local government should also be given in early oral or language-work, which geography should have enlarged by familiarizing the pupil with the chief forms of national organization, and the historical reading, already referred to, have enriched with details of the growth of our own system; so that, in the last year of the elementary course he would be well prepared to take up somewhat systematically the study of our own institutions. Experience seems to have demonstrated the feasibility of this, and no one will deny its desirability. The comparative table annexed shows how it has been introduced into some programs; and with its introduction after geography and history the elementary course in civics becomes fairly *satisfactory*.

3. The considerations thus far adduced present a satisfactory unity in elementary work, but they relate to one side of it only. It seems not unlikely that for the complete unification we must look to the development of industrial education. For this allies itself on the one hand with drawing and elementary geometry, to which it gives an immediate utilization, as well as to arithmetic; and, on the other hand, to science, and thus to the network of science, geography, and civics which we have been considering. It develops the constructive, as the other the inquisitive side of the pupil's nature, and brings home to him continually the practical value of knowledge and skill. It is related to number, form, and science; and, as the other additions to the curriculum are crowding into the waste places of its literary side, so, it seems probable, this will crowd into the waste places of its mathematical side. How closely this is related to the elementary conceptions of number and form by adding emphasis to their objective study, is at once apparent; it develops also measurement and proportion, thus involving fractional relations and compound numbers; it brings the idealizing tendency of the mind to accuracy and realization; and above all, unites the whole scheme of school-training to the realities of actual life. The arithmetic may gain strength and richness by yielding something to it, and the curriculum be made not more complex but more simple through a sense of its vital unity.

III.

The subject of language-training in our elementary programs presents peculiar difficulties, and the comparative programs subjoined show greater divergence in reference to this than in reference to any of the other great traditional elements. The fundamental fact to be observed is, that in the nature of things, language is always a means and not an end; and while its difficulties compel long-continued training, they are most effectively vanquished by keeping it so far as possible in its instrumental relation. In this relation, the processes are vital instead of formal merely, and the pupil's nature accepts gladly and appropriates the help which answers to its need. The determination of relations is here of the greatest importance. Speech comes first as the direct instrument of thought; and this is learned by use, and only by use. In accordance with the principles of combination, utilization, and self-help, its law would be: encourage the pupil to express his thought, and help him to do so correctly. The thought is central, the speech but instrumental, as physiological psychology is effectively demonstrating to us. Our aim should be to awaken interesting and profitable thought, and then facilitate its delivery. The waste here in programs is through little, formal, meaningless word-drills, which can have no vitality. We may say that that result has followed the break-up of formal grammar with us, which with the Romans, under Lucullus, followed the flight of Mithradates — we have since occupied ourselves with gathering up the abandoned spoils. To turn from this, and train first to tell and then to

write correctly the thing learned or observed, is to return to the simplicity of nature, and in teaching little, teach much. In place of aimless composition-work,

"The dropping buckets into empty wells,
And growing old with drawing nothing up,"

this uniting of language-work with all forms of school instruction would train pupils to describe well for geography and science the things they have seen; to narrate well historical incidents; to state simply and clearly the results of investigations; to relate observations so as to establish an inference—all real and vital work, and all integrally and naturally related to the remainder of the school program. That reflective and critical study of language which we call grammar comes when reflection begins to develop, and should be carried on vigorously and connectedly. Too much time has been given to it. Common sense and experience should teach us the general truth of the observation with which Mr. Lincoln's biographers close their account of his study of it: "He seemed surprised," say they, "as others have been, at the meager dimensions of the science he had acquired, and the ease with which it yielded all there was of it to the student."

IV.

We have thus briefly and imperfectly presented a study of elementary programs as an organized whole, each element working with all the other elements to the upbuilding of an educated human being. The chief sources of waste at present result, we are convinced, from an imperfect grasp of this conception, and from an inadequate view of the possibilities of early education. We still divide and weaken where we should combine and vitalize. Great advances have been made and are making toward remedying the defects. Side by side with the complaints about overcrowding, come demands for additions to our courses, and charges of waste; and both deserve attention. It is easy to be unprofitably industrious; it is not impossible to add and relieve at the same time. President Eliot says that a French school-boy at eighteen is ahead of an American at nineteen, because he begins serious subjects at an earlier age. He begins foreign languages and history at eight, and devotes during his course only a third as much time to arithmetic as an American boy does. For all that, Frenchmen are not bad calculators. Although his case is an extreme one, and differs in details widely from what our schools demand, the record of John Stuart Mill's education is extremely instructive for us; a record which in his opinion shows "how much more than is commonly supposed may be taught, and well taught, in those early years which in the common modes of what is called instruction are little better than wasted."

J. W. STEARNS.

Z. RICHARDS.

APPENDIX TO REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

COMPARATIVE PROGRAMS.

<i>Studies.</i>	<i>Kansas City.</i>	<i>Chicago.</i>	<i>Cincinnati.</i>	<i>Milwaukee.</i>
Language.....	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 3, 4	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 4
Grammar.....	4, 5, 6	5, 6, 7, 8	6, 7, 8	5, 6, 7, 8
Arithmetic... ..	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
Geography.....	2, 3, 4, 5, 6	4, 5, 6, 7, 8	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
United States History...	4, 5, 6, 7	7, 8	7, 8	6, 7
Civil Government.....			8	8
Reading.....	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
Spelling.....	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
Penmanship.....	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Drawing.....	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1
Music.....	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	
Elementary Science.....			6, 7	A course.
Composition.....			6, 7, 8	5, 6, 7, 8
Morals and Manners.....	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	
Physical Geography.....				8

The numbers indicate years of the course during which the studies are pursued.

Two only of these programs indicate the hours per week devoted to each subject. These are as follows:

GRADES, FROM LOWEST TO HIGHEST.

<i>Studies.</i>	<i>I.</i>	<i>II.</i>	<i>III.</i>	<i>IV.</i>	<i>V.</i>	<i>VI.</i>	<i>VII.</i>	<i>VIII.</i>
Reading.....	{ C. 5.....	5	5	5	5	2½	2	2
	{ K. 10....	10	10	9	6	5	5	
Spelling.....	{ K. 4.....	4	4	3½	3	1½	1½	1½
	{ C. 1½....	1½	1½	1½	1	1	1	1
Penmanship	{ K. 3.....	2	2½	2	2	1	1	
	{ C. 3.....	3	3	3	3	2½	2½	2½
Language, and Grammar.....	{ K. 1.....	1	1½	3	5	6	6	
	{ C. 3.....	3	4	4½	5	4	4	4
Arithmetic.....	{ K. 5.....	5	6	6	6	7	7	
	{ C.....		2½	2½	3	2½	2	2
Geography	{ K.....	1	3	3	4	4		
	{ C.....						1½	2
History	{ K.....						4	
	{ C. 1.....	1	1½	1½	1½	1	1	1
Drawing.....	{ K. 1.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	{ C. 1.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Music.....	{ K. 1.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	{ C. ½.....	½	½	½	½	½	½	½
Morals and Manners.....	{ C.....					2	1½	1
Composition.....	{ C.....					½	½	
Elementary Science.....	{ C.....							½
Civil Government.....								
Oral Lessons, and Callisthenics.....	{ K. 1.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	{ C. 1.....	1	1	1	1			
Miscellaneous.....								

K., Kansas City; C., Cincinnati. The numbers indicate hours per week given to each subject.

From the second table we derive the following comparative statement of the number of hours given to each subject during the elementary course by the pupils

in Cincinnati and those in Kansas City, reckoning in each case forty weeks to the school year :

Studies.	Kansas City.	Cincinnati.
Language and Grammar.....	940	900
Arithmetic.....	1,680	1,260
Geography.....	600	580
United States History.....	160	140
Civil Government.....		20
Reading, }.....	{ 1,960 to Reading } and Spelling. }	1,260
Spelling, }		1,160
Penmanship.....	540	400
Drawing.....	280	380
Music.....	280	320
Elementary Science.....		40
Morals and Manners.....		160 x 2 = 320 *

* A note in Cincinnati Report states that to Morals and Manners, one-half hour per week is given in the opening exercises and one-half hour additional in a special exercise.

DISCUSSION OF COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

[REPORTED BY F. A. FITZPATRICK.]

The discussion was opened by Mr. Parr, of Indiana. He believed that the paper in the main was admirable, but thought that it dealt too largely with details. The paper should have enunciated some general, central principle; should have emphasized what should be taught, and not have taken so much time and space in enumerating what should *not* be taught. Such statements for use of teachers should be general. Some margin should be left to the judgment of teachers.

Mr. Hancock, of Ohio, would like to inquire what special general principles Mr. Parr had in mind. Mr. Hancock said the paper covered the highest practical ground. The statements were perhaps extreme in certain condemnations, but this is pardonable because the most of the teaching in schools is of a mechanical character; and to substitute dynamic teaching for mechanical teaching is the most difficult thing that school managers have to accomplish. He indorsed the paper as being correct on every point.

Mr. Greenwood, of Missouri, thought the report was very uneven; was strong in spots; thought that the paper failed to make one vital distinction, viz., that thoroughness is not an attribute of child-nature. Had he outlined the subject of the report he would have placed the waste under the head of Waste by States, by Boards of Education, by School Managers, by Teachers.

Mr. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, thought the report timely, practical, able, and specially valuable. The revival, which came a dozen years ago, the so-called New Education, condemned older phases of methods; posited the idea that a short road to success had been discovered. This report emphasized the point that talking is not teaching; that success cannot be achieved by any short roads; that the doing too much for children was the defect of the schools of this era. He indorsed this heartily. The author of the report puts the knife in the right place. He thanked the report for this very infinitude of details, which had been criticised, because, by generalities, the subject could not be reached. The physician has properly diagnosed his case.

Mr. Baldwin, of Texas, indorsed the paper. A thread of great principles runs through the whole report; was pleased with the negation of isolated work; with the emphasis of the principle of much in all, of unity of work; having a circular movement, which returns to itself, and this is the substance of all grand development of char-

acter. The great waste of our education is isolation. Subjects are not connected. Unity in work is the crowning glory. Details in the report are necessary. It is always difficult to apply the principles of organization, and this is where these details are specially valuable.

Mr. Harris, of Massachusetts, said he was specially interested in phases of the report; enjoyed the discussion of comparative utility being the test of the place of study in program, while he differed from the author; thought the holding back of pupils in lower classes one of the principal items in waste in education. It is always damaging to keep pupils at work in the known when they are ready to pass to the unknown. He objected to the report in its allusions to grammar; considered the teaching of grammar specially valuable in separating sensuous from pure thought. He agreed with the report in its reference to the educational value of language lessons; thought readers invaluable for developing a taste in literature. It is from the school-reader that most children imbibe this taste if they get it at all. Hence the necessity of having upper readers. The lower readers are colloquial only. The upper readers have vocabularies from authors who soar away from the language of the street. A selection from some author in the higher readers often marks the starting-point for a child in beginning his career. He antagonized the idea that a child could not understand these selections. He would grasp some portion of the truth. This would awaken power. Another element of waste is the continued drill of pupils in the elementary branches, especially on arithmetic, on the plea of thoroughness. Mathematics ascends, in conflict with nature, by gradations. I do not believe in trying to solve eclipses by arithmetic. Many positions in arithmetic should be assailed by flanking, rather than by direct attack. There is waste in the higher education, too; there is petrification in it. Its agnosticism is a crying evil. The belief that the higher things cannot be known is the Gorgon of the higher education.

Mr. Soldan, of Missouri, said the characteristic of all great teachers is not to make unnecessary effort. Are not teachers at the present time compelled to make unnecessary effort by pressure from the outside? The demands of life impose new tasks every day upon the schools — tasks more than can be accomplished. New studies are being demanded by the public continually. To-day it is type-writing, and yesterday it was shorthand. He believed that the waste in education might be classified under two heads: First, Waste in Method; second, Waste in Subjects. In the old education the pupil worked out the solution for himself; to-day the teacher does everything, and pupils are assumed to have no brains. Education presupposes effort on the part of the pupil; without effort there can be no progress. So far as the subjects are concerned, it is impossible for the school to keep pace with the public demand. The course of study can be so broadened that teaching will grow shallower and shallower. The tendency of the age in school-work is to broaden, rather than to deepen. It was for calling attention to this tendency that he was thankful for the report.

Mr. Richards, of Washington, said that he heartily indorsed the paper in all of its phases of treatment. He did not agree with Mr. Harris in the necessity of having higher readers; at any rate, he would arrange the First Reader so that it should teach the meaning of words; that the Second Reader should combine these words; that the Third Reader should teach the meaning of the language used in the studies of the school.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CITY SCHOOLS.

THE BUSINESS SIDE OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

[PREPARED BY B. A. HINSDALE AND PRESENTED BY H. M. JAMES.]

The school system of a republican state is not only *for* the people, but *of* the people and *by* the people. It will therefore reflect the popular intelligence, virtue, and spirit. It may, indeed, be better or worse than its creators, but only for a limited time. The schools of any community or state will not far outrun or far fall below the civilization around them. Owing to a happy conjunction of circumstances, they may pass beyond the range of public appreciation and sympathy; but if so, they will either fall back to the people, or halt until the people overtake them. Owing to unfavorable influences, the schools may fall into the rear of the column, and fail to express the average culture and life; but if so, the public will find it out in time, and will compel them to quicken their pace. Guizot holds that civilization consists of two principal facts—the progress of society and the progress of the individual; and he says: “The two events are so intimately connected that, if they are not produced simultaneously, sooner or later one uniformly produces the other.” (History of Civilization, sec. 1.) Herbert Spencer hints a similar philosophy in his celebrated remark, with which *as a fact* we have nothing to do, that we Americans got our form of government by a happy accident, not by normal progress; and that we shall have to go backward before we can go forward. (Herbert Spencer on the Americans, etc.) In the long run, a progressive society moves as a unit, and not in sections; and between the public schools and the public there will always be intimate reciprocal relations. One of the many deductions to be drawn from this truth is, that we cannot *give* any people a useful system of schools: such schools must grow up on the soil, and be an expression of the popular life.

The relations of the people to the public schools in an American state may be thus analyzed:

First, they delegate to the legislature, in the state constitution, power to constitute and sustain a system of schools.

Secondly, the legislature creates such a system, delegating to local authorities, variously called the school-board, the school-committee, etc., power to organize and carry on schools in their respective localities.

Thirdly, the board, in the discharge of its legal duties, delegates to teachers the functions of teaching and discipline, subject to the law and the board's supervision.

Fourthly, the people elect, at frequently recurring periods, the members

of the legislature, and commonly of the board itself; while within these periods they exert, or may exert, a strong influence over legislature, board, and teaching body alike. As respects teachers, this influence is so strong that it may be doubted whether any corps of teachers in the country could resist an energetic expression of public opinion on any matter that it can change, for ten consecutive days.

Thus the popular power returns to itself, constituting a circle. In fact, there is no other American institution that, taking everything together, is so democratic as the public school.

It will be seen that a system of public schools, in operation, presents four phases to our view: the work of the legislature, the work of the board, the work of the teachers, and the work of the public. This report will partially traverse all these divisions, but will deal mainly with the board.

Between the schools of a city considered as an organization of business, and as an organization of instruction, there is a strong reciprocal influence. The two cannot be permanently separated in character more than the schools can be separated from the civilization in the midst of which they exist. The board formally enacts the course of study, chooses the text-books, and elects the teachers, as well as builds the buildings; it establishes the formal rules of discipline and has the power, that it often exercises, to set up standards of examination; and by its manner of doing business, the culture, tone, and bearing, etc., of its members, greatly influences the teachers, giving them courage or otherwise, and also affects the morale of the schools and public opinion. So strongly was the late Dr. Philbrick impressed by these facts that he passed by the Prussian maxim, "As is the teacher, so is the school," and the Dutch maxim, "As your inspection is, so is the school," to formulate the maxim, "As is your school board, so are your schools." (City School Systems in the United States, 14.) At the same time the teachers are an educational force of unquestionable strength over and above what they do in school-rooms. If able and devoted, they slowly raise the standard of intelligence; they act directly upon public opinion, and through that are felt in the election of members and in the counsels of the board; and they act upon that body directly through their expert knowledge and moral force.

It does not follow from this reasoning that the business and educational sides of a system of schools will, at any given time, be equally well developed. Far from it. At the present time, for example, the schools as organizations of instruction are better than the schools as organizations of business; that is, the teachers, open as they may be to criticism, are still somewhat in advance of average public sentiment and of average board administration. The pressing need of the hour is, for the people and the boards to overtake the teachers. Still, such a state of things as this cannot long last; good schools, a bad school-board, and an indifferent or ignorant public opinion will not long exist side by side in the same city; the board and the public will rise to the level of the schools, or the schools will fall to the level of the board and the public.

Perhaps two or three further remarks touching the relations of teachers and the board may be permitted.

Instruction is so purely a professional matter that the board is commonly disposed to allow teachers to make the course of study, to set the standard of examinations, and to invent methods of instruction; but accords them no power and but limited influence in the selection of text-books and in fixing the qualifications of teachers, not to mention matters of a purely business nature, as finance, construction, and the like. So far as merely business matters are concerned, some boards are sensitive even to suggestions from teachers. "Stick to your last!" is the sentiment that burns in the breast of many a board-member. In fact, there is reason to think that, owing to the division of labor, and perhaps to other causes, the administrative and the teaching functions of the schools are becoming more widely separated than formerly. In some places board-members appear to take less interest in the schools as places of teaching, leaving them more and more to the teachers, while they more and more magnify their own peculiar office. It is always difficult to prove propositions relating to the slow drift of opinion of social change; but it is at least questionable whether the influence of teachers in school legislation is equal to what it was thirty years ago. At least, the teachers of whole states have called upon the legislatures again and again for legislation of the value of which they are not only the best but almost the only competent judges; and only to see their call fall at the feet of legislators powerless and dead. More than formerly, educational meetings are gatherings of teachers; fewer outsiders appear on the program and the subjects discussed are *more* professional and *less* administrative and popular. Perhaps this closer specialization of functions is attended with some advantages; it certainly is by some disadvantages.

However they may differ as to these general views, practical school men will generally, if not universally agree, that the constitution and powers of the school-board, the mode of the selection of its members, and its method of doing business are all live school questions. They will be briefly discussed in order.

I. THE CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF THE BOARD.—The constitution and powers of the board, which is necessarily the creature of state law, must depend in a measure on the local political institutions of the state. Manifestly, the town system of New England, the county system of the South and the compromise system of the Middle States and the West will materially influence the school legislation of these groups of states. In fact, we have no difficulty in dividing our state school laws and systems into three classes corresponding to these three groups of local institutions. In New England the local school authorities are either town officers, or district officers, or both; in the South they are mainly county and district officers; while in the vast region covered by the compromise system, town and county officers, and often district officers, unite in administering the schools. It

therefore impossible to create a model school system, or even school-board, that would answer for all parts of the country. A county superintendent would be an anomaly in New England, where the county is a judicial but hardly a political division; a town meeting would be an anomaly in the South, where the town in a political sense can hardly be said to exist; while in the West both town elements and county elements are mingled in all the school systems. These great facts of local institutional life will differentiate our school laws and our school systems as long as they continue to exist. Men will not use the county or the town for school purposes unless they also use it for political purposes.

To a great extent, however, the city schools must be excepted from the foregoing generalization. Generally speaking, such schools exist under special charters, special laws, or the general school laws of the state supplemented by special provisions. Thus, the laws of Ohio contain numerous provisions relating to city districts of the first grade of the first class, of the second grade of the first class, etc. As a consequence of this partial withdrawal of the city schools from the larger systems, and of the prevalence in American cities of similar conditions, the city schools are much more homogeneous as respects both the organization of business and the organization of instruction than the country and village schools. Moreover, the conditions existing in cities are such that this segregation of the schools is a necessity. For example, the schools of a city cannot be made or be kept subject to the county supervision; nor can the board be compelled to wait on the motions of a township board. There must be a local authority coëxtensive with the jurisdiction, legally capable of taking the initiative. So very strong is this tendency that even small villages struggle for and obtain school autonomy.

But the question of city autonomy disposed of, a more difficult question remains, viz.: What shall be the relation of the local board to the municipal government? Shall it be wholly independent, or shall it be subordinate? And if subordinate, to what extent? In New England, where the town meeting, in its sovereign capacity, passes on all fundamental questions of local government, including the schools, this cannot be a very important question; but in places where the local government is representative, and not democratic, it is of much importance. The cities of the country present the widest contrasts in this respect. In some, the school board is as completely independent of the city council and all other municipal authorities as though the two did not belong to the same municipality; while in others, nothing done by the board is done finally until the council has ratified it. Both of these are extreme plans. However, this question will not be discussed here, except to say that the arguments in favor of keeping the financial affairs of the city unified are, from the side of municipal administration, absolutely conclusive; and that there is no more reason for giving the educational department autonomy than for giving it to the parks, the streets, or the fire

department. Education is a civil affair, but not an autonomous affair; in any case, it does not follow that it would always be wise to reorganize an autonomous board.

The powers of the board, from the very nature of the case, must be legislative, as in the adoption of studies, books, and rules; partly executive, as in the election of teachers; and partly judicial, as in handling cases of discipline. The proper size of a city board is a question that cannot be answered off-hand. Something should depend on the size of the city, and on the traditions of the people; and much more on the manner in which the board organizes its business. Both of these points will be touched again in connection with that topic.

II. THE SELECTION OF BOARD-MEMBERS.—The problem of selecting competent school-boards in cities remains unsolved. Its importance and difficulty so impressed Dr. Philbrick that he wrote: "Without doubt this is the supreme educational problem which remains for our educational manhood to grapple with." ("City School Systems," 16.) There are several general modes of selecting board-members, each of which presents a different species.

First, popular election. Here the species are: (1) Election by ward or district ticket; (2) the election by city ticket of members to represent the city; (3) the combination of the two foregoing plans—thus constituting a board composed of local members and of members-at-large. As regards these three plans, what is best administered is best; and no wise educator would recommend that any one of them that is now working satisfactorily in any city should be dropped for either of the others. They are all in harmony with the prevalent political and social temper of American society, and there is no one of them that may not, under favorable conditions, produce measurably satisfactory results. Moreover, if a board were now to be constituted in a rising city, a practical educator, if consulted, would find it hard to choose among them.

In cities where the ward-ticket plan has led to gross abuses, it is common for citizens to look with favor on the general-ticket plan. Nor can it be denied that this plan is supported by some plausible arguments. It is argued that the small men who work into the board from the wards never could be elected on a city ticket; that only men of some intellectual and moral qualifications could secure the party nominations; or if they did, could secure the requisite votes to elect them; that ward issues, ward "slates" of ward men, would give way to educational issues and educational measures. In a word, that men could no longer be elected simply because they favored opening the saloons on Sunday, or for some similar reason.

It may be doubted whether this reasoning is not more specious than real. The party candidates would be nominated by the city caucus; the nominations would go to the foot of the list, and so be made after the chief municipal officers had been designated; the caucus would have spent its strength

and interest in these other nominations; and we may well question whether the opportunity for improper men to secure the nominations would not be as good as now, if not better. Nor is it probable that citizens would be more independent of party when it came to voting than they now are. In some cities the board would consist wholly of members of one party. These are theoretical arguments; but to some degree at least they have been confirmed by experience. A cultivated gentleman, who was at the time president of a city school-board, after listening courteously to the argument for the general-ticket plan, said, smiling, "It doesn't work so in ——!" (naming his own city.) It is true that these objections would be partially overcome if the election were made a special one; but in that case new difficulties might arise. At all events, this plan will not furnish the looked-for means of escape from existing evils. The complexity of the combination plan is no doubt an objection to that.

Secondly, appointment. Four varieties of this method are found in operation: Appointment (1) by the city council; (2) by the judges of the courts; (3) by the mayor; (4) by the mayor by and with the consent of the council. Although the first of these plans may work well in some instances, it cannot, for obvious reasons, be recommended; but there are no *a priori* reasons why any one of the others should not produce satisfactory results. The argument in favor of an appointed board will be briefly sketched.

The grand cause of bad school-boards in cities is the same as the grand cause of bad city administration generally, viz.: the triumph of politics over business methods. How complete that triumph is in many cities, all men know who are even casually acquainted with current municipal affairs. In fact, one of the pressing political questions of the day is the thorough reform of municipal government. There is no reason to think that in this respect the schools have suffered more or less than other departments of city government. It is to be observed, however, that the real nature of the evils that politics inflicts upon the school, or even upon city administration as a whole, is not always understood. No doubt partisan politics—Republican and Democratic politics—has much to answer for; but *school* politics—the application of the politician's methods to school questions—does far more harm.

Those men who have studied municipal questions most thoroughly are convinced that there is no ultimate means of escape from existing evils but by reducing the number of elections and elective officers, by limiting the power of the municipal legislature, and by materially increasing the power and responsibility of the chief municipal executive. The city of Philadelphia has already been thoroughly reorganized, on what is called "the Federal Plan"; and the city of Cleveland has sent a monster petition of its business and professional men to the state legislature, praying for a similar reorganization. The solution of city school administration must be sought in the same quarter.

The mayor of the city, or the judges, would be *able* to appoint a better school board than the people at large are able to elect. The abstract proposition that the people have abundant intelligence and virtue to name a board, although true, is nothing to the purpose. The concrete proposition, What are citizens doing and likely to do under the conditions actually existing in the cities, ridden and handicapped as they are by the politicians? is the one to be considered. Furthermore, the mayor, or the judges, if they failed to use their power, could be and would be held to a strict accountability. No doubt it will be objected, that these officers, and particularly the mayor, would abuse the power; but cities can be named that never had a mayor who would dare to appoint such a board as the people habitually elect save when aroused to spasmodic action by an accumulation of abuses. The mayor is one man, and an officer, who can be arraigned at the bar of public opinion, while the *demos* is a multitude that is not responsible, since experience proves the futility of calling any power to account at its own bar.

There can be little if any doubt that the public would exercise far more control over the schools by the appointive plan than it does or can by the elective plan. It can compel the mayor to do what it cannot do itself. Guizot has shown that public opinion is sometimes far more efficacious than legal institutions. "It is very natural," he says, "that men should wish their intelligence to be prompt and apparent; that they should court the credit of promoting success, of establishing power, of producing triumph. But this is not always either possible or useful. There are times and situations when the indirect, unperceived influence is more beneficial, more practicable." (Lect. vi.) The present case is one of those in which influence will prove far greater than power.

With the change in the mode of appointment, should also come a lengthening of the term of service. Now the legal term is commonly short, and changes of one kind and another tend to make the actual time still shorter. In the school-board of a certain city of a quarter of a million people sixty different men *might* have sat from 1882 to 1886, and fifty-one men *did* actually sit. The eighty-six years of aggregate service divided by the aggregate number of members gives an average period of one year and a half. Words can hardly tell the ignorance, incapacity, and friction that such a system introduces into the school administration.

III. MODE OF BOARD ADMINISTRATION.—The board must be clothed by the law with legislative, executive, and judicial powers and duties. One of the first things that it should do, however, is immediately to divest itself of most of its executive and judicial duties and to confine itself mainly to legislation. The reasons why a board is a bad executive body are obvious, and do not call for formal statement. But it is important to point out how its executive duties should be discharged.

Acting as a legislature, the board should establish three executive departments, defining these powers and duties:

The Department of Finance, Accounts, and Records.

The Department of Construction, Repairs, and Supplies.

The Department of Instruction and Discipline.

The heads of the departments might be called the Auditor, the Superintendent of Construction, and the Superintendent of Schools. Nothing will be said here of their qualifications, further than that they should be men of decided ability and character, having each an expert knowledge of the important duties committed to their charge.

These departments should be as permanent and efficient, relatively, as the executive departments of the state or national government; perhaps it would be wise to have them provided for in the school law itself; certainly they should be put high beyond the reach of hasty board action. It is not necessary, in this report, to catalogue the duties that would fall to them respectively; but it is necessary to insist that they should be the sole channels of executive administration, within their several limits. Judicial functions, so far as employ  s are concerned, should be delegated to the heads of these departments, granting the right to appeal to the board, duly limited.

School administration in cities is still organized essentially as it was when the cities were villages. While this organization answered the villages well enough, it is now far outgrown. To be sure, semblances of executive departments are found in these organizations, but they are embryonic and feeble. To a very great extent boards intrust administration to committees of their own number. This is not quite so absurd as it would be for a state legislature to attempt to carry on the whole state administration by means of standing committees, but the absurdity is of the same sort.

Confining itself mainly to legislation, the board should proceed to do business like a legislature. It should appoint a few standing committees, say on finance, on teachers and salaries, on course of study and text-books, on construction, on judiciary, and perhaps two or three more. Details can be readily settled when the main ideas have been agreed upon. At the same time, it will be well to indicate the method of procedure.

For example, the Committee on Teachers and Salaries would, at the proper time, report the number of teachers needed the ensuing year, a schedule of salaries, and the amount of money required to pay them. After being printed, discussed, and amended if necessary, the board would pass the bill, and the money voted would then be duly entered on the Auditor's books, as subject to draft for this purpose. Similarly, the Committee on Construction should report on repairs, on new buildings, or on supplies, and the procedure should be the same as before.

By this plan, the legislative work of the schools, as well as the executive work, would be far better done than now. At present, the board spends a great deal of time in small acts of legislation. For the school-board of a great city to legislate, in terms, on the purchase of a few feet of hose-pipe, or of a lawn-mower, is no less and no more absurd than it is to have twenty-five or thirty standing committees, many of them charged with executive functions, in order that as many men may have the petty chairmanships.

Not only would this plan of organization secure far better results than are now secured, but it would save much time and annoyance. A meeting a month on the average would be all-sufficient. Again, this plan would render a board of considerable size not only unobjectionable but desirable; whereas a board that holds the major executive duties in its own hands must, to be efficient, be small; it is hardly an exaggeration to say, the smaller the better.

The plan would give to the office of Superintendent of Schools that strength and dignity which its efficiency demands. As a matter of course, the superintendent would be clothed, either directly or indirectly, with power over the course of study, instruction, and discipline. The new Cincinnati rule would be incorporated in the organization of the board, viz.: The Superintendent of the public schools shall appoint all the teachers of said schools by and with the consent of the Board of Education, and the Superintendent or board may remove for cause. Possibly some would think it wise to go as far as the bill drawn up for the better government of the city of Cleveland, submitted to the Ohio legislature at its last session, which provides, "The Superintendent of Schools shall have power to select his assistants, appoint all teachers, prescribe courses of study, and select text-books." Moreover, this bill abolished the Board of Education altogether, and gave the school, as well as all other parts of the city government, a highly centralized organization.

It is not pretended for a moment that the plan of appointment and administration now sketched out rather than fully elaborated, if embodied in law, would relieve all the evils of the public schools. Nothing of the kind. But it is contended that they would lead to substantial reforms; better men, better methods, and better administration would be secured. No doubt the objection would be made that the plan is undemocratic. But the charge would be untrue. The scheme proposed contains nothing that may not somewhere now be found in actual operation, save only the full development of the executive departments, and the practical limitation of the board of legislation. The board, of course, would choose the executive officers. Behind the whole organization would stand the public, as now, having less immediate power, but far more ultimate influence. The scheme is submitted to the Council in the belief that, in its essential features, it is the best one attainable in the present state of our civilization. It is certainly in harmony with the best current thinking concerning city government in the United States. Nor is argument needed to show that it would give courage to teachers, and that it would call abler men than now into the school service, as board-members, and as instructors and supervisors.

Respectfully submitted.

B. A. HINSDALE.

DISCUSSION OF THE FOREGOING REPORT.

[REPORTED BY R. W. STEVENSON.]

Mr. Baker thought that the first part of the report did not recognize fully the power and influence of superintendents, principals, and teachers in giving character to the schools. While teachers could not withstand a current of public opinion, setting permanently in one direction, they could resist the power of mere eddies in the current, and should do so. While, as said, nothing can rise higher than its source, it is wrong to suppose that the only source of excellence in schools is the *people*. The people employ teachers as experts, and expect them to make the schools. They are usually willing to yield to the opinion of those conducting the schools, provided earnest work is being done. The corps of teachers may create right sentiment in a community—be leaders of the people. Referring to the manner of electing school-boards, he said that by some means their election must be separated from the influence of politics, and mentioned the system in Colorado, where special school elections are held. In Denver the system has worked admirably. The very fact of making the election a special one in the interests of education tends to eliminate ward politics. Mr. Baker then spoke of the method, existing in the cities of California, of electing superintendents by popular vote; he thought it a great evil, and urged that the Council speak in no uncertain tone in condemnation of the system.

Mr. Jones said that he was in full accord with the report as to the question of independence of a school-board from common-council interference. The city councils deal with streets, sidewalks, etc., while the business of a school-board concerns beings of mind and soul. A pavement or a sewer may be a sad mistake, but each may be reconstructed; but the mistakes of child-education are beyond reformation. The child has left school, and cannot be called back. The associations aroused in the management of police, sidewalks, and sewers, are not educational. They are far from the gentle sympathy needed in the education of children. So far as he had noticed, when a school-board has to stand before the council, hat in hand, pleading for an appropriation, the cause of education is humiliated. Secondly, it is not advisable that the superintendent be placed in a position that will cause the community and the teachers to feel that he carries the election of teachers in his vest pocket. There may be cases when the superintendent must confine his choice to a single individual; but ordinarily it is better, far better, to have the board bear their part in the work of selection, the superintendent but designating those whom he considers qualified. As the superintendent's life is largely with the immature, it will broaden and strengthen him to join hands with the board in all affairs of administration.

Mr. Hancock said that we had had a wise paper on waste in educational effort; but there was another waste equally detrimental to schools, and that was a waste of public money arising from the incompetency of boards of education, of superintendents, and of teachers. Through the partisan methods that were creeping into school management, favoritism and corruption in the selection of teachers had become in many places so frequent as not to excite surprise.

The report has proposed a plan for the selection of board-members which would remove that selection from the direct action of the people. But the speaker believed all such plans would prove failures. By no scheme, in a government like ours, can you get behind the people. The only way of getting better boards is to educate the people, and arouse their interest in their schools.

Mr. Hancock also believed that as the superintendent was the best judge of the qualifications of teachers, he should have a large voice in their appointment; indeed, that no teacher should be appointed without his advice.

Mr. Higbee—The discussion is becoming confused by not recognizing the distinction between *jurisdiction* and *qualification*. The city superintendent should certainly determine the qualifications of teachers, by examination or otherwise. With this the directors or controllers have nothing to do. They are not generally familiar with the details of educational work, and must depend on the judgment of the superintendent, who holds his office because of his perfect familiarity with the necessary qualifications of teachers. On the other hand, the matter of *jurisdiction* is properly in the hands of the directors or controllers. They can employ or refuse to employ teachers whose qualifications are accredited by the superintendent. It may be a question, however, whether this matter of jurisdiction should be exclusively in the hands of the directors. In my judgment, the superintendent should have advisory power here also, but not in such form as to throw the responsibility of employment entirely into his hands. I know of no instance in which the superintendent has autocratic power in this respect. It is a mistake to say that the superintendent of Cincinnati has this power. The fact is that the board has granted him the nominating and vetoing function, but this is far from what is meant by autocratic power. The board may revoke its grant at any time, and may insist upon other nominations until their wishes are properly respected.

The boards represent, or are intended to represent, the wants and needs of the parents and communities, and this must be respected, for our schools must not become despotic state machines in which the family life is not recognized as significant in their management. A system of mutual checks between the boards and the superintendents is necessary, and, in my judgment, the only method that can prove itself practical and efficient.

Mr. Fitzpatrick said that it was not wise to depart far from the people. Boards directly and fairly represent the communities. They are as likely to be reasonable as the superintendents; they have as few vagaries. In his judgment the investment of the appointing power in the superintendent was dangerous; this increase of power would result in disaster.

Mr. James said he had no great faith in the efficiency of new methods of electing a board or organizing the schools. There will always be opportunities for designing men to carry into effect their evil schemes. The paper presents a new method, but it would fail like any other unless the tone of public sentiment is such as to make it successful. This is really an essential condition of the success of any public-school system. If any city has a good board of education and good public schools, it is because of a strong and healthful public school sentiment. What can be done by the teacher and superintendent to create or improve this public opinion? Very much, if with a well-directed aim they work persistently for this result. The power of this body of teachers when all work in unison, is immense. The public naturally looks to them for leadership and the best citizens are always anxious for the success of the schools. It should be one of the aims of the superintendent to accomplish this result.

Mr. Richards called the attention of the Council to the fact that we have, in the District of Columbia, a national model of "the business side of city school systems." We have a population of about 250,000; there are about 35,000 children in our public schools. Congress makes all our laws; imposes and collects all our taxes, for all purposes whatsoever; in which the tax-payers have no voice or control. The President of the United States is our chief executive officer, with power to appoint three commissioners, who really execute, and under certain circumstances make, such laws as they and Congress may deem necessary. In accordance with their own ordinance, one of the three commissioners has the school system under his own control, whether he knows anything about schools, or not. He virtually appoints nine trustees, as

mere advisers, with no power to make or finally act upon a single item of expenditure, or to make any appointment or fix any salary of a teacher, or other school officer. The commissioners appoint the superintendent, and virtually every teacher; so that, as the superintendent is the only school officer who is supposed to know anything professionally about schools, he becomes the controlling power in the whole system. This I present to you as our national model of a school system. The people who have the children to be educated, and the taxes to pay, are trying to induce Congress—the men whom you, the people of our great country, send to make our laws—to secure for us such a school law as controls most of our cities, based upon the principle that “taxation and representation go together.” It is our earnest request that you will use your influence with your members of Congress to induce them to give us a school law in which the people can have a voice.

Mr. Harris pronounced the construction of the report an admirable one. It had laid out the subject in an exhaustive manner, and had canvassed the literature of the subject. The topic is one of the most important ones that had ever come before the Council, and should, in the speaker's opinion, be held over for a fuller debate next year. The speaker was compelled to dissent from many of the conclusions of the report, notwithstanding its admirable survey of the field.

For example, he believed in what are called in the committee's report “autonomous boards.” He believed that school-boards should have power to lay and collect taxes—a maximum limit being fixed by law. If the school-board depends on the city council, it can never know exactly what it will receive as its annual stipend, and must not undertake new experiments, no matter how important they may be to the schools. Again, he differed from the committee in regard to the appointment of boards. The board appointed by the mayor may be very good or very bad; but it cannot bear the pressure of public opinion, and it does not represent the people like a board elected from wards or districts. When the superintendent gets a measure through a board that represents the people in their wards, it is difficult for outside pressure to cause them to swerve.

He agreed with the report in condemning executive action on the part of boards, and specified local committees on individual schools as a source of much unjust legislation and administration. The delegation to the superintendent of all the power in the appointment of teachers also was condemned as a very mischievous arrangement. The appointment of teachers should be made by a teachers' committee, with the advice and consent of the superintendent, and reported to the entire board for its approval. The board as a whole should never appoint teachers. Neither should the superintendent have arbitrary power in this matter, because it undermines his general influence rather than strengthens it.

PROCEEDINGS
AND
ADDRESSES
OF THE
KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

ODD FELLOWS' HALL, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July 18, 1888.

The Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association was called to order at 2:30 P. M., Vice-President Miss Eva B. Whitmore, of Illinois, in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Nathan C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania; after which the Kindergarten's Hymn was sung by the audience.

In the absence of the regular Secretary, Miss Anna M. Stovall, of California, was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The President, Mrs. E. L. Hailmann, of Indiana, being unable to attend the Convention, sent her annual address, which was read, at the request of the chair, by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California.

At the close of the address, Mrs. S. B. Cooper gave a résumé of the kindergarten work accomplished in America since its inception.

N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania, read a paper on "The Educational Value of the Beautiful."

C. H. McGrew, of California, followed in the discussion.

A number of Kindergartners from the newly-graduated class of '88, of the California Kindergarten Training School, then sang, by request, several motion-songs, composed by Mrs. Kate D. Wiggin.

The encore was followed by a paper on "An Ideal Professional Training School for Kindergartners and Teachers," by Prof. McGrew, of the University of the Pacific, California.

The discussion of this paper was laid over for the next session.

The Chair then appointed the following committees:

On Nomination of Officers—C. H. McGrew, of California; Miss F. M. Backen, of Illinois; Anna M. Stovall, of California.

On Resolutions—Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California; N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania; Miss M. McCulloch, of Missouri; Mrs. Chas. W. Dohrmann, of California; Miss Elizabeth Dickey, of Utah; Mrs. Louise Pollock, of Washington, D. C.

The session then adjourned to meet at the same place, Thursday, at 2:30 P. M.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

The meeting was called to order by the Vice-President, at 2:30 P. M.

The regular session was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Weitzel, of California.

After the Teachers' Hymn was sung by the audience, the discussion of Prof. McGrew's paper, read at the previous session, was participated in by Mrs. C. H. Dohrmann, of Stockton, California, and Mrs. Kate D. Wiggin, of San Francisco.

Miss Mary C. McCulloch, of Missouri, presented to the California kindergartens a model of the Shepard Kindergarten, of St. Louis, furnished and decorated by the kindergarten children of that city, and sent to California with their greeting.

Mrs. S. B. Cooper, in behalf of the California kindergartens, thanked Miss McCulloch for the gift.

The singing of the Froebel Hymn was followed by the presentation by Mrs. L. Pollock of gifts sent to Mrs. S. B. Cooper and Mrs. K. D. Wiggin from the Washington kindergartners.

Several kindergarten motion-songs were then sung by the California training-class of '88.

In the absence of Prof. J. Ogden, of Dakota Territory, W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, followed with an account of the incorporation of the Kindergarten Department into the National Educational Association.

The Pundita Ramabai, being introduced by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, gave a talk on her proposed kindergarten and industrial work among the child-widows of India.

After the singing of several motion-songs by the graduates of the California Training School, the session adjourned to meet at the same place, Friday, at 2:30 P. M.

THIRD SESSION.—JULY 20, 1888.

The meeting was called to order at 2:30 P. M., the Vice-President presiding.

N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania, offered prayer.

The minutes of the two previous meetings were read and approved.

C. H. McGrew, Chairman of Committee on Nominations, reported as follows:

For President—Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco.

For Vice-President—Miss Mary C. McCulloch, St. Louis.

For Secretary—Mrs. Kate D. Wiggin, San Francisco.

Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper declining, the committee amended its report by substituting the name of W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, for President.

Upon motion, the report as amended was then adopted. The Secretary

was directed to cast the vote of the department, which being done, the officers were declared duly elected.

As Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper offered the report of the committee, which was read and adopted.*

W. T. Harris then delivered an address on "The Relation of the Kindergarten to the Public Schools."

A communication from Miss Emma Marwedal concerning "An International Council of Women" was referred for investigation to a special committee, which was directed to report at the next annual session. The following were named on this committee: Mrs. E. L. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind.; Mrs. Louise Pollock, Washington, D. C.; Miss Alice H. Putman, Chicago, Ill.

Mrs. L. Pollock, of the Kindergarten of Washington City, made a brief address.

The chair then introduced the newly elected officers.

Several of the motion-songs were, by request, repeated.

Upon motion, a vote of thanks was tendered to Mrs. K. D. Wiggin and her class for the musical treat.

The Department then adjourned *sine die*.

ANNA M. STOVALL,
Secretary pro tem.

* See page 41.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

EUDORA HAILMANN, LA PORTE, INDIANA.

I cannot say that I regret that I am not with you, for with all my heart and soul and mind I am with you; and I feel a prophetic assurance that at the meetings of the Kindergarten Section of the National Educational Association of this year, through the contact of heart with heart, soul with soul, and mind with mind, there will be generated warm emotions, high aspirations, and strong determinations which in the course of time will bear good fruit. I have looked forward to this meeting as one of the greatest joys of my life; for here will assemble good men and good women from the West and the East to give and to receive whatever of mutual aid or inspiration the free interchange of thought and experience may afford. It was my desire—which I now must forego—to speak to you in a few inaugural remarks, upon the importance of adequate preparation of kindergartners for their work; for “who can build upon another man’s foundation,” unless he be fully acquainted with the intentions of him who laid the foundation, and familiar with the tools and materials needed in the superstructure?

The kindergarten is an established fact. It is entering all departments of educational work. Whatever benefits may accrue thereby to these departments will depend primarily upon the genius and efficiency of the persons having the work in charge. But genius can be adequately developed and full efficiency secured only by thorough preparation.

It should, therefore, for some time to come, be the supreme aim of all interested in the introduction of kindergarten principles into educational institutions to insure such training. The character of such training will necessarily vary in accordance with its ultimate object, viz.: parenthood, kindergarten, or school. So far as parenthood is concerned, the full introduction of the kindergarten and kindergarten principles in the schools will eventually answer every purpose; but, in order to supplement current deficiencies, the last year of high-school, and possibly also of grammar-school work, should afford opportunities to the pupils to be familiar with the songs, games, and dexterities of the kindergarten. In order to supply the needs of the school, all normal schools should contain a well-appointed kindergarten and primary school for observation, and should give, in addition, each teacher full control of kindergarten principles and their application to school work. This should not be done in an annex, but should form an *integral part of its work*.

The importance of the preparation of kindergartners for their work cannot be over-estimated, for as just stated, upon its success are staked home and school training. According to Froebel, "Education consists in leading man as a thinking, intelligent being, growing into self-consciousness, to a pure and unsullied conscious and free representation of the inner law of Divine Unity, and in teaching him ways and means thereto."

The kindergartner therefore must be put in possession of ways and means by which the growing child may consciously find within himself the spark of divine light which thus shielded from the rude breath of ignorance or willfulness will burn brighter and brighter as the years roll on, until the increase in faith, hope and love engendered in infancy lights up and sweetens the whole journey of life for himself and his fellows.

If education were merely the getting of facts, or the getting of facts and the art of application to wage-earning, or the getting of facts and the art of application to wage-earning for the purpose of self-preservation, or the getting of facts and the art of application to wage-earning for the purpose of self-preservation in order that "self" may be preserved, it would be an easy task to accomplish; but a deeper insight into the affairs of life, and a broader horizon, reveal other aims to be followed, other heights to be reached, as indicated so clearly in Froebel's thought on education. This thought demands that the kindergartner know human nature, and more particularly child-nature, in their development and possibilities; that she have a broad survey of the materials of experience and knowledge, and full control of ways and means for the guidance of child-development. Time, a full corps of competent teachers, abundant materials and opportunities for practice and observation, are essential conditions in the work of such a school. Given these conditions, it is of paramount importance to consider the applicant's natural fitness for the work. She should be in the full possession of physical health; her life should be based on sound moral principles; her intellect should be keen, mobile, and prompt, and her mind amply furnished with facts and experiences.

The course should be at least two years. The studies should include physiology, psychology, natural history, geometry, the philosophy, theory and practice of Froebel's ideas and methods in regard to human development, vocal and instrumental music, drawing, painting, modeling, and gymnastics.

For those who from lack of preparation are not able to enter the school, a preparatory department might be added. It goes without saying, however, that natural unfitness should preclude entrance here also.

No one teacher can meet the demands of such a school. No student can accomplish the work in less time. No apprenticeship experimenting upon the children should be permitted. It is a practice which works injury in both directions—to apprentice and child. On the one hand it blunts the finer sense of interpretation of child-nature, and on the other hand it deprives the child of his natural right to the best conditions of his growth.

A year's observation in a good kindergarten should always precede practice. The student should observe the children in their work with the model kindergartner during the four seasons, so that no doubt may remain in her mind that the culture and growth of children is no more synonymous with the teaching of children than is the watering of a plant synonymous with the absorption and assimilation of the water by the plant.

This can be clearly seen only if the student has the opportunity to note the gradual changes, as manifested in greater power, clearer ideas, better means for self-expression in language, manual skill, in better adjustment to surroundings and consequent increase in cheerfulness and benevolence. Such schools would do away with the chief evils of insufficient training; and the unbiased observer will concede that the time has come and the soil is ready for their establishment.


Everywhere the people are asking: "What is this kindergarten?" "Can you recommend to us a competent kindergartner?" "Can you suggest how a kindergarten may be established?" and so forth. These words are familiar to the ears of principals of training schools. The very imperfections which have obtained in our methods of preparing kindergartners, through the insufficiencies of these kindergartners in a work felt to be desirable, have intensified the desire for more competent workers. Here, as elsewhere, the consequence of insufficient training is superficial work, which being judged by superficial tests, pleases for a period, but which, like cut flowers, droops and fades, and leaves behind a desire for something more truly living, that may realize its promises of permanent blessing; and if this desire, in successive experiences, finds itself doomed to disappointment, it dies in disgust. Therefore, kindergartners and their friends should hold themselves in readiness to support the realization of such schools under efficient leadership. Still better, it would seem to me, would be the united effort to establish such a school, or such schools, in conveniently selected districts, under the auspices and direction of a competent organization similar to the "Froebel Institute," which now sleepeth, but might be reawakened if *all* would lend a hand.

That your deliberations may, both directly and indirectly, lead to the early realization of the hopes herein indicated, is my earnest wish.

A BRIEF RÉSUMÉ OF KINDERGARTEN GROWTH.

SARAH B. COOPER, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

I have been asked to give, at this point of our meeting, a brief résumé of kindergarten work in this country. If you would get the best view from the rapid, whirling train, take the rear platform. Fifteen years ago there was but one Kindergarten Normal School in this country. That was in



Boston. The few teachers who were graduated were many of them obliged to incur debt for their training, and were then severely tried by finding the public unprepared for this system.

Miss Elizabeth Peabody, at the mention of whose name we bow in reverence, was working away with all that heaven-inspired energy which never takes counsel of defeat, knowing that what is excellent, as God lives, is permanent. But with all her superb devotion and enthusiasm, in 1873 there was but one free kindergarten in Boston, with about a dozen children, from 5 to 7 years of age, in charge of Mrs. Horace Mann, Miss Peabody having been its first teacher. How was it in St. Louis at this date? Hon. W. T. Harris, now our honored guest, whose keen insight opens the intellectual world of law and harmony, the world of beauty, and the realm of spiritual verities,—I say, Hon. W. T. Harris had already discovered the scope and value of the Froebel system of unfoldment; and in his Annual Report that same year as superintendent of the St. Louis public schools, he recommended the founding of a number of small primary schools more or less on the kindergarten plan. One kindergarten was founded the following year. You are all familiar with the grand work done in St. Louis by Dr. Harris and Miss Blow. If you are *not* thoroughly posted as to the career of their infant prodigy, that rushed from swaddling-clothes into coat and short trousers, and then darted ahead into young manhood under the fostering care of Miss McCulloch,—I say, if you are not fully posted on this subject, I advise you to take a speedy tour through the pavilion and look at the St. Louis exhibit. It would be quite pardonable in those wonderful workers if they were to exclaim as they look upon this prodigy, "Is this great Babylon that I have built?" We would not exile them to the fields, to eat grass, if they were to thus apostrophise. Other kindergarten exhibits tell the same story—of advancement all along the line. (We confess to a thrill of pride as we look at our own California exhibit—a right promising "chap" for a ten-year-old!)

It was at the twelfth annual meeting of the National Educational Association, that Prof. W. N. Hailmann—whom, with our National President, Mrs. Hailmann, we had fervently hoped to have with us to-day—proposed the appointment of a committee of clear-headed, true-hearted educators from all parts of the land, to examine the Froebelian system of instruction, and to bring in a report the following year. The resolution was carried, and a committee of seven was appointed to carry out the provisions.

We have no time to follow up, in detail, this great and important educational departure. We must dart forward to the very latest official statistical information in regard to kindergarten work. Two years ago, thirty-one states and five territories reported kindergartens. It is safe to say, that to-day almost every state and territory in the Union has established something of kindergarten work. It is in the common air of the country. It has become atmospheric. Public-school educators long ago tore down the bulwarks

of prejudice, and threw upon the kindergarten a clear, steady and divining gaze. They are reaching out warm hands and hearts toward a system which they welcome in proportion as they discover its value and beauty. They see that it lays foundations for such productive work as is to be seen in the exhibit from the Technical School of New York, which is claiming so much intelligent attention.

But I must not linger longer in detail. I will briefly refer to another recent important step, taken by the St. Louis workers, in the establishment of colored kindergartens. The lyrical and artistic nature of the race will make them apt scholars and successful teachers. It will flood the South with new-found light and strength. The rapid strides that the kindergarten is making, in relation to public-school work everywhere, will be fully brought out, no doubt, during the deliberations of this Association. I trust Mrs. Wiggin will not fail to tell us of the recent grand movement along the line in Philadelphia, in the senior-class kindergarten work of the normal school. In regard to the noble stand taken by our own school board in this matter, I can only say: God bless them for what they have already done, and inspire them to still larger and grander things in the future, from the three-year-olds up to the senior classes of the normal school.

And now, dear friends, let me bid you God-speed, every one of you, this day. Let us take courage and go forward! Let us catch the song of triumph and assurance, "Lo, I am with you always!" Let us remember that His almighty power and unremitting care will enrich our fields of service and of growth, and that His strength will be made perfect in our weakness. Let us remember in all our work that a triumphant spirit is as much the *cause* as the *consequence* of victory, that great causes have always had little armies, inspired by principle and cheered by honest comradeship of spirit, wise and resolved; and so, dear friends, let us thank God and GO FORWARD!

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE BEAUTIFUL.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, KUTZTOWN, PENNSYLVANIA.

In the kindergarten, children are taught to produce forms of life, forms of knowledge, and forms of beauty. It is easy to see the value of the first and second class of forms. The occupations connected with these impart useful knowledge and beget mental habits which ultimately issue in useful skill. The clamor for the practical, which is daily growing more intense, tends to make us neglect and undervalue the forms of beauty. The useful and the beautiful belong to different categories—the former serving as means to an end, the latter having the end in itself. A sewing-machine is valued because it does a certain kind of work for us; the moment it ceases to sub-

serve this purpose, we cast it aside as worthless. A beautiful picture is hung upon the wall, and we cherish it for its own sake, aside from any money-value it may have in the market. Since beauty has its end in itself, it may sound like a contradiction of terms to speak of the educational value of the beautiful. Indeed, some writers seem to look upon the beautiful as a hindrance, rather than a help. A modern French educator says: "Put a child who is learning to read, in a garden with a primer, and there, amid the sensations which eddy about him, it will be almost impossible to fix his mind. He will be continually interrupting his spelling with all sorts of exclamations: 'There goes a butterfly! There flies a bird!' On the other hand, place the same child in a room scantily furnished, and somewhat gloomy, where the solicitations of sense are rare, proceed in such a way that he sees only his book, and you will find that he will repeat his lesson with but little resistance." Such logic would rule out the kindergarten altogether, and leave no vestige of beauty in our systems of instruction.

As intelligent advocates of the kindergarten, we should be prepared to give a reason for the faith that is in us. We should be prepared to show that its occupations have a higher purpose than simply that of keeping the children busy. We ought to show that the forms of beauty, as well as those of life and of knowledge, answer a real need of our human nature; that the neglect of any one of these seriously interferes with the child's harmonious development. I claim that the æsthetic deserves a place alongside of the ethical, and the scientific; that it is just as rational to inquire into the educational value of the beautiful as it is to make this inquiry concerning the good and the true. Of course, there comes a time when these should be sought each for its own sake; when the individual must be ready to sacrifice the interests of self in order to learn new truth, to realize new ideals of virtue, or beauty. But in all education prior to the professional or technical stage, the pupil should be the end of teaching. The branches should be taught or neglected according as they help or hinder normal growth and development; even certain forms of goodness should be excluded until the pupil is prepared to exemplify them in his life, and forms of beauty should be utilized only in so far as they aid in the training of the child. It is, therefore, important to fix the educational value of the beautiful.

The problem is, indeed, more comprehensive than many would at first sight suppose. Upwards of forty years have elapsed since Prof. Vischer of the University at Tübingen established the kinship between the beautiful, the sublime, and the comic. These three have their home in the works of nature and art; they furnish the material for the æsthetic activities of the soul. To neglect any one of them is to produce one-sided men and women. Exclude the comic and you degrade yourself to the level of the brute; for man is the only animal that laughs; as lord of creation it is his high prerogative to enjoy the ludicrous, to reap benefit from the comic. Exclude the sublime in education and you beget a shallow nature, incapable of lofty

aspirations, and marvelous achievements. Exclude what is ordinarily understood by the beautiful, and the result is an uncouth disposition, a soul cut off from some of the purest emotions in life, a being that can see no force in the proverb, "A thing of beauty is a joy forever." Fortunately the morose pedagogue cannot altogether crush out the æsthetic in human nature. Children will have fun; they instinctively admire what is great and grand; in spite of books and gloomy school-rooms they will find delight in birds, butterflies, pictures, music, and rhymes. The Frenchman's example argues rather against his method of teaching reading, than against the policy of placing the child in a garden where it will be surrounded by the beauties of the natural world.

Let us descend to details. All beauty is a species of expression. Every object that we pronounce beautiful is the embodiment of an ideal. Take a youth born and bred in Venice, where the streets are canals, rendering horses useless. Bring him to the main-land. The first horse he meets will make a vivid impression upon his mind. As he continues to observe horses his idea of the species grows more perfect. Attribute after attribute is thrown into the alembic of his imagination until his mind evolves an ideal of what a perfect horse should be. The moment he finds this ideal realized in any horse, he calls the animal beautiful. Or take Zeuxis, who is said to have painted grapes with such naturalness that birds pecked at them. When he undertook to paint Helen for the inhabitants of Crotona, he desired to see the most beautiful maidens of the city, and having selected five of the fairest, he copied what was most perfect in each and thus completed the picture. He formed his ideal from what he saw and then enshrined it in his painting of Helen. The painter expresses his ideals in form and color, the sculptor in marble, the musician in sound, the poet in words and verse, the architect in building-materials, the Supreme Architect of the Universe in the works of creation.

Since every kind of beauty is a species of expression, we can claim for it all the educational value which belongs to expression as the genus. *Expression begets and clarifies thought.* The effort to express ourselves either in words or works, makes us test and explore our ideas in their essence and relations. To grasp what others have expressed, we must think their thoughts and for the time move on the plane of their intellectual life. In studying the works of nature either for the sake of discovering its laws and causes or for the purpose of enjoying its beauty and sublimity, we become like the great astronomer who exclaimed: "O God, I think thy thoughts after thee." What is reading but the process of interpreting what has been expressed by ink on the surface of rags? In teaching this fundamental art of modern education we frequently pass to the word through the picture because to the child's mind the picture of a cat or a dog is far more expressive than the words cat, dog; and herein lies the justification of the "cat and dog" literature which has been prepared for our primary schools. The

artist passes from the object to the general idea, from that to the ideal (which is individual) and thence to the form which is or should be an adequate expression of the ideal. The child, although somewhat familiar with the object, may by proper questioning be led from the outward expression to form the ideal in his own mind, and thence there is but a step to the formation of a more perfect idea of the species or genus, since the picture and the corresponding ideal have dropped the non-essentials which often mar the object. Thus the interpretation by the child for itself of what others have expressed, generates thought by causing the mind to move in channels grooved by maturer minds, thereby expanding the intellect, elevating the soul, and invigorating the whole mental life.

But in the kindergarten the pupil does not remain a mere interpreter of what others have produced; the occupations in which he engages make him a creator, an incipient artist. They exercise his constructive imagination. The models of symmetry and order in the arrangement of parts constitute the simplest kind of beauty and lay the foundation for the development of taste and skill in higher forms. The work in drawing, modeling, weaving, embroidery, etc., and the movement-songs, not only beget an appreciation of the beautiful in form, color, sound, and verse, but also furnish excellent training for the ear, the eye, the hand, the nerves and muscles. Being taught to keep himself clean while working with clay, the learner acquires the habit of cleanliness, which according to the proverb is next to godliness, and according to Dittes lies at the basis of all æsthetic culture. Thus we see that the kindergarten aims to generate æsthetic activity in all directions. It seeks to lay the foundation on which subsequent culture must build the superstructure.

Often the lower is best seen in the light of the higher. Many things in the lower orders of creation can only be understood when seen as adumbrations of the coming man. Many things in the kindergarten are only seen in their true light when viewed from the standpoint of later culture.

What is the effect of beauty upon youth and manhood? Beauty is like a sight draft—the moment it is seen its value is acknowledged. The young man who indulges in coarse jokes, and vile conversation, instinctively lays aside his vulgarity on entering a fine parlor; the influence of beautiful surroundings is seen in his changed conversation, and polite demeanor. Indeed, politeness is one form of the beautiful; it is beauty manifesting itself in our treatment of others. Uncle Ezek, in the *Century*, calls uniform politeness a species of godliness; “it may not make a saint of a man,” he says, “but it makes a lovely sinner.” Beauty cannot create a new heart, but it greatly helps to change the disposition. The spirit of disorder has been exorcised from many a school-room by the introduction of flowers, pictures, new furniture, and the politeness of a good-looking lady teacher.

Evil, too, may clothe itself in the garb of beauty, and thereby work greater harm. Politeness may cover up vice; music may render sin more seductive;

painting may be used to stimulate the basest passions. Such instances show how strong a hold beauty has on human nature; how important it is to utilize the æsthetic at school and in church. Entrance into a fine cathedral makes the soul forget the cares of earth; the music of the organ fits it for worship; the poetry of the psalms prepares it for communion with God.

At Dresden a woman entered the room containing the Sistine Madonna by Raphael. As she gazed at the picture of Mary holding the Christ-child her face glowed with the radiance of devotion. Suddenly she espied the host of angel faces looking from the clouds upon that holy scene; the ecstasy upon her countenance showed that she was breathing the atmosphere of another world. Listen to the choir of boys in the Dom-church at Berlin or to the choir of men in St. Peters at Rome, and words will fail you if you try to describe the effect of their music. When the missionaries of colonial days could not reach the wild Iroquois in any other way, they tried the power of a concert, and thus captivated the heart of the savages. When the Sultan Amurath captured Bagdad, he ordered the garrison of thirty thousand Persians to be put to death. Among the victims was a musician who asked that he might be spared a moment so that he might speak to the author of the decree. He sang the capture of Bagdad and the triumphs of Amurath until the latter, overpowered by harmony, repented of his cruelty and ordered his people to spare the prisoners who yet remained alive. The heart is not only softened by the sweet strains of music—it is often encouraged to greater deeds. When the Forty-second Highlanders began to waver at a critical moment during the battle of Waterloo, Wellington asked the cause. On being told that the band had ceased to play, he gave orders to bring out all the music; the soldiers rallied and the victory was won. Examples might be indefinitely multiplied to show how the beautiful in tone and in form purifies the heart and elevates the soul of mature men and women. Upon youth and childhood the effect is still more marked. Bring a boy from the street into a beautiful school-room; the very surroundings make him forget the tricks of outdoor life and fit him to engage in work of a higher type. I have within the past year witnessed the complete transformation of a child by a few weeks of training in a kindergarten. The temper was improved; the ear for music was begotten; the perception of form and color became more vivid; a love of order sprang up; the child entered into more complete harmony with its whole environment.

There is another realm of beauty, which we have thus far not considered, and in which childhood finds supreme delight. It is fairy-land. If the fairy-tale is well told, it furnishes needed food for the imagination; it develops a feeling for what is graceful or elegant, and it begets a taste for the beautiful in language. Here we touch the realm of the sublime. Childhood has a strong craving for myths and stories of heroes; for everything that excites the sentiment of the sublime. The sublime in all its forms may be employed to beget aspiration in the soul, to give strength to character.

The study of the sublime in the life of Achilles and in that of Ulysses produced a race of heroes that conquered the hosts of Xerxes at Marathon and Plataea. Alexander's career was largely molded by the copy of the Iliad which he carried with him from his boyhood. The tragedies of Shakespeare, in which a hero always dies for the sake of some noble idea, are of incalculable value in training the æsthetic nature, for they combine the beautiful and the sublime, and thus exert a double educative influence upon the student. I know of no better illustration of the power of tragedy than an experience of the great missionary, Scudder. On one of his tours into the interior of India, the mob, learning that he had come to preach a new religion, gathered to stone him. He came forth from the house in which he lodged, and announced that he had come with a message from a great King, saying that after the delivery of his message they might do with him what they chose. He then related the tragic story of Jesus' love and death upon the cross, and as he related the sublime incidents of that narrative, stone after stone dropped to the ground, the tears started in the eyes of the hearers, and when the missionary had finished, not a finger was lifted to do him harm. If the tragic sublime has such an influence upon the hardened heart of the heathen, what influence may it not be expected to exert upon the impressible life of children!

The child's attempts at forms of beauty often result in ludicrous failure. The boy's "would-be" grand achievements frequently beget a laugh in the school-room. This must not disquiet the teacher. "There is but a step from the sublime to the ludicrous," says the proverb. If it were within the province of this essay, it would be easy to show the kinship of the comic and the sublime with the beautiful as ordinarily understood. Suffice it to say that beauty finds its highest expression in the fine-arts, that the highest of the fine-arts is poetry; that the greatest poet of the ages, Shakespeare, expended the best powers of his genius upon tragedy and comedy, the former giving us the highest form of the sublime and the latter the highest kind of the comic. The educational value of the comic is hardly recognized. Human nature craves the ludicrous, and if you try to suppress it together at home and in the school, the boy will seek it in hazing, in minstrel shows, and the like. Men seek fun, and will pay the humorist a big price for his books and his performances. Why is this? The answer is not far to seek. The comic is a safety-valve which lets off our discontent with the ills of life. It helps to reconcile us to many things in themselves hateful. It helps to break down the partition walls that separate the hearts of men, and brings them closer together. An Arab becomes your friend because you have enjoyed a meal with him; an American becomes your friend because you have enjoyed a hearty laugh with him. One reason why some teachers never win the hearts of their pupils, is found in the fact that they do not know how to use and regulate a laugh in the school-room. The long-faced misanthropes who think it a sin to smile, invariably beget

the worst forms of school trickery and rowdyism. The enjoyment of the comic is not inconsistent with true greatness or true piety. He cannot have read his Bible very closely who has not discovered that the comic is employed by the prophets and by the Saviour himself in the warfare against vice and Satan. The teacher who understands human nature can often use the comic to correct the foibles of childhood and youth.

Of course beauty in its various forms may be abused to the detriment of the pupil. If his attention is too exclusively riveted upon graceful and elegant form—if his æsthetic nature is allowed to run riot in the luxuries of art—it may make him effeminate, and eviscerate the elements of strength and austerity. Nations that rapidly grow rich are especially exposed to this danger. Again, it is of the highest importance that the right sort of heroes are placed before the growing mind. Schiller's Robbers are said to have influenced young noblemen to lead the life of highwaymen. Everyone knows how the young are affected by the heroes of the ordinary cheap novel, who, after many adventures and hair-breadth escapes, suddenly rise to fortune, and thenceforth lead respected lives. Such reading has led many a boy to run from home and to lead a wild life until made wiser by the lessons of sad experience. Moreover, there is special danger in the use of the comic. If indulged in too freely, it saps the foundations of an earnest character. The man who is expected to make others laugh soon loses his reputation for sound judgment. Wit is illogical. Those who employ it too frequently lose the power to carry on rigid processes of thought and to influence others in a serious way. The comic is, indeed, a weapon that must be skillfully handled. Wit is like a two-edged sword: it often cuts him who wields it as well as the victim. It may leave wounds that never heal, or scars which though healed for a time, fester and become sore again in after years. A careless joke may forever destroy our power for good over certain sensitive natures. The comic should therefore be used with a care and skill similar to that with which the surgeon handles his knife, lest it inflict life-long injury.

To sum up the results of our investigation, we may say that we cannot agree with the Frenchman in the assertion that beauty is a hindrance in the education of the child. The contemplation of a beautiful object lifts the soul to higher planes of thought and enjoyment. The occupations of the kindergarten in the creation of forms of beauty, make the child an incipient artist and lay the foundation for æsthetic culture in all directions. When beauty is enlisted in the service of sin, it may enervate our whole being; but when rightly employed it expands the intellect, elevates the soul, and gives strength to character. When beauty passes over into the sublime, it helps to inspire noble deeds and great achievements. When it assumes the form of the comic, it acts as a safety-valve to let off our discontent with the ills and contradictions of life, and serves to correct many foibles in the conduct of young people. When abused, it destroys a teacher's influence.

Hence it should be employed with extreme care and skill. In a word, beauty in all its forms is needed to secure the harmonious development of the child's life.

AN IDEAL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR KINDERGARTNERS AND TEACHERS.

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We live in an age of rapid social developments. One science after another is evolved out of the struggles of the race toward our higher ideals of civilization. Genius and practical philanthropy are ennobling these sciences by making many applications of them in the arts, industries, pursuits, and professions, and thus enriching human life and character. The noblest science of them all, the science of human culture—the science of sciences,—based upon all other sciences and arts, is the last to develop and receive recognition; and the profession of teaching, the profession above all other professions, requiring for its success the broadest culture, the best skill and ability, the fullest insight and consecration, has just begun to receive the recognition and competence it deserves. But as teachers we yet live more in our hopes than our possessions; more in our ideals than realities. Hence it is that I am to tell you what I believe to be the proper conditions, outlines of study and training for those entering upon this sacred work of teaching. My Professional Training School shall consist of two departments—a Developing or Model School for the harmonious education of children, observation and practice-teaching; and the Professional Instructions and Training. Both parts are absolutely necessary for the scientific instruction and training of teachers.

The following should be the plan, features and character of work of

I.—THE DEVELOPING OR MODEL SCHOOL.

1. *Child-Nature and Psychology of Childhood.* The New Education has essentially to do with the child. The child should be the center of all educational work. The child's nature is sacred, and its harmonious culture according to its nature and destiny should be our highest aim. The knowledge, love and reverence of the higher nature of the child should be the soul of the Model School, and direct and inspire and ennoble all its work. Every child should be received in the spirit of the great Froebel, as a thought of God, and, in love and faith, have every power and capacity of its nature developed to its highest function. In the unfolding and training of the child's nature are found all the principles and methods of human culture. A knowledge of childhood, its unfolding laws and methods of development,

is the secret of the whole process of education. Locked up in every little child's being are all the inherent capabilities of the race, and the possibilities of attaining a higher culture.

The natural, the good, the true and the beautiful in childhood must be carefully distinguished from the abnormal, the evil, the false and the vicious; and the child carefully nurtured and trained toward these higher ideals. In order to do this, all sides of the child's nature must be studied and understood. The child must be treated in the broadest sense, as a child of Nature, a child of Humanity, and a child of God. The child must be studied as a creature of natural history—a part of nature, having a life history in nature, and subject to all her laws; as a being of social, moral and intellectual endowments, having creative powers and capacities, whose soul receives its highest satisfaction in attaining the good, the true, and the beautiful; and as a creature of heredity and environment, every side of whose nature is colored and influenced by these factors. This study of the child as a growing being—physical, emotional, moral, social and intellectual, whose nature is wonderfully colored, weakened, strengthened, warped and influenced by his heredity and environment, opens up to us that most attractive field of research—the psychology of childhood. This is the richest of all fields of scientific research, and until recently, scarcely touched by the educator. It is by far the most important to the race, for “the hope of the world lies in childhood.” Let us consider for a few moments,

2. *The Unfolding of the Powers and Growing Capacity of the Child.* In the development of the child from birth to early manhood and womanhood, it exhibits three clearly distinguishable periods of psychological growth. These are the periods of Sensation, Perception, and Conception. The Period of Sensation is most prominent during the instinctive and automatic life of infancy, when the child-soul slumbers within, unconscious of all. It is characterized by that vacant, dreamy, inward look of the eyes, and almost complete helplessness and lack of bodily control. During this period the physical organs grow into strength and activity, consciousness dawns, the soul powers begin to unfold, and ere long take possession of the body.

Out of this period is developed the Period of Perception, which dawns at the early kindergarten age, and is most prominent during childhood. It is characterized by an exuberance of feeling and extraordinary activity of the mind, inward and outward. The child is all eye, ear, and hand,—a living battery of psychological forces and tendencies. He is a perfect bundle of feelings, instincts, and impulses. His powers of observation—the senses, perception, memory, and recollection—are very active in gathering impressions and giving outward expression to his emotions and ideas. Language expression develops very rapidly through the laws of association, imitation, and habit, and language memory seems to have a prodigious grasp. The imagination takes flights unknown to earth. The will, associated with the emotions and prompted by the desires, seems to be almost irrepressible,

springing into free, spontaneous, persistent exercises of its own choosing. At this age the brain develops faster than any other organ of the body. By the time the child is seven, it has received five-sixths of its growth in adult life. This is a significant fact for educators, and explains why childhood is so impressionable. These early impressions ingrain themselves into the structure of the growing brain, and wonderfully influence the feelings, thoughts, actions, and character in after years. This is the seed-time of life, and the wise parent and educator cultivate for the future harvest. I believe a single year of true kindergarten training at this age, is worth more to the child's character than two years of the best college instruction in after life. This is also the most interesting and valuable period of the child's life for psychological study, because human nature is unfolding, and is simpler, fresher, more natural, and more truly original. The child's originality and peculiar endowments may be seen in his various modes of doing, making, creating, and expressing, almost every hour of his life.

This period ushers in the Period of Conception. The school has heretofore occupied itself largely with this period. Here the imagination becomes more normal, more productive, and the reasoning powers—comparison, judgment, classification, generalization—reach quite a degree of development and control. The highest aim of education at this period should be to train the youth into a perfect harmony of feeling, thinking, and acting—into a rational and creative being. Through all these periods, from the earliest infancy, habit becomes a powerful factor in the child's education. The child should be trained into habits of right feeling, right thinking, and right acting; into habits of order, neatness, accuracy, truthfulness, industry, cheerfulness, happiness, freedom, and spontaneity in all development. Habit is the all-powerful, all-pervading, all-controlling agency in human life and education. It is through this agency that the kindergarten system moulds character, and influences so wonderfully all the sides of the child's nature.

Thus, in the development of the child's powers, the physical organs, senses, feelings, instincts, faculties and volitions have their natural order and time of unfolding; and not only these groups, but the separate powers of each group. This natural and harmonious development is secured by carefully adjusting the work of teaching to the child's growing capacity. The child's natural unfolding and growing capacity should order and control all teaching. Knowing the child's capacity, and adjusting the work to his growing powers, is the highest test of the true teacher. It cultivates in the child interest, enthusiasm, happiness, order, love of work, and harmony of inner life. Tested by this standard, fully fifty per cent. of all educational work is done under or over the capacity of the pupils, and it is worse the higher up we go—much worse in the colleges and universities than in public schools. Our text-books and courses of study are prepared with more or less reference to the growing capacity of pupils; but these can never take the place of the living teacher, and do the divine and beautiful work of teaching.

Nothing but the living, inspiring, uplifting mind of the teacher can ever touch the sleeping soul-powers of the child, and train them into their highest functions of thought and creativity. And it is only by understanding the unfolding powers of the child, and adjusting our teaching to his growing capacity, that we can secure complete and harmonious mental action in

3. *Observing, Thinking, and Expressing.* The principle of growth, or mental activity, exists in the child-mind in two directions. The sentient mind is impressed with the outer world through the senses and physical organs. It thus becomes active, and makes use of the instincts, feelings, faculties, senses, and bodily organs—especially the hand, in giving outward expression to its emotional and intellectual states; to give outward shape and existence to its feelings and thoughts; to bring about certain external conditions for the sake of certain internal enjoyments and satisfactions; to influence, control, use and modify outer conditions and materials for inner wants and purposes. Thus this self-activity of the mind has two phases, or directions. One from without inward—receptive, acquisitive, learning; the other from within outward—expressive, productive, creative. In true education, both phases of this activity must go hand in hand, and receive its appropriate culture. The first, in the acquisition of ideas and thoughts; the second, in giving expression—outward creation—to these ideas and thoughts, so that the child may develop power in this expressing, and his creations may impress the senses and influence the lives of others. The highest results have ever come, and must come, from a harmonious blending of these two phases of mental activity in the unfolding and training of all the child's powers. These sense-impressions must grow into thoughts and feelings, and the thoughts be deepened, broadened and clarified by all-sided expression. There should be a complete harmony of feeling, thinking and doing in the growing mind—constituting a happy and creative life.

The arched doorway to the great temple of harmonious education is composed of three massive stones—Observation, Thought, and Expression; and these support the whole superstructure. Whoever enters this temple and receives its blessings, must pass through this archway. It is every child's divine right to be trained to observation, thought, and expression. Imperfect observation, crude thinking, and beclouded expression go hand in hand; so do correct observation, accurate thinking, and clear expression. Much of school-work fails to accomplish any valuable results because of imperfect observation, thought, and expression. And the current methods are most defective in securing all-sided expression, and as a consequence fail to bring out the child's talents, special bias, and characteristics. The child should be trained in complete expression of his thoughts and feelings in: 1. Language as the great vehicle and repository of thought, and Music as the language of the emotions. 2. Bodily and facial expression, thus giving grace, manners, countenance, self-control, address, personality. 3. In making, constructing, and creating. 4. In plastic representations—Modeling and Engraving.

5. In graphic representations—Drawing, Coloring, Painting. This opens up to the child the fields of literature, science, useful and fine arts. Children will reach different degrees of perfection in these lines of expression. And the greater the variety and perfection of expression the more truly will the child be educated. Now if our public schools and institutions of learning are to bring forth the harvests of culture and character, demanded by our growing civilization, they must adopt this New Education represented by

4. *The Kindergarten System and its Development.* The Froebel system, beginning with his kindergarten, is our highest realization of a philosophical, all-sided, harmonious education. This system, based upon the wise educational experience of mankind, and the great law of developing human nature according to nature, is wonderfully adapted in all its principles, methods, materials, devices, and details, to a natural and harmonious culture of all the child's powers—physical, intellectual, social, moral, and spiritual. The system furnishes our fullest, freest conditions for both phases of this self-activity in the mind, for the development of sense, instinct, feeling, and faculty, and for all-sided expression of thought and emotion in language, music, gesture, invention, modeling, and drawing. The true kindergarten develops every side of the child's nature toward the good, the true, and the beautiful. This system contains in principle, germ, and spirit, all there is good in our modern educational reforms. It furnishes the best sense-culture and hand-training for our public schools, and is the true basis for all manual training, scientific and industrial education. It aims to attain the triune results of development, learning, skill, and ability. And as a principle once true is true forever, these laws and principles of human development should be applied with varying conditions and methods to all grades of educational work, from the kindergarten to the university, inclusive. The coming university, the scientific and polytechnic university, that will lead this country in educational thought, and bless the millions, must have its roots in the true kindergarten system, and have these laws, principles and spirit infused into every department. New discoveries, new applications, materials, and inventions will of course be necessary; but these will come by adjusting the work to the growing capacity of the child, and by a closer, deeper, fuller insight into humanity and its needs.

Thus the Model School should begin with the kindergarten, and be a development of the system in all its higher grades. I would have the principles and spirit infused into every department of the Professional Training School. For in Nature there are no breaks, no rude transitions: the law and spirit of all things is continuity; so in the natural and harmonious culture of the child's powers, there should be nothing but continuity. As the child's physical nature grows, assimilates and develops continuously, from the beginning until he attains full stature and strength, so his mental organism should grow, assimilate and develop continuously from the beginning of his mental life. The first condition of education, then, in the Model School,

should be to know and recognize the child's inner being, capacities, and needs, and to aid, stimulate, direct and supervise his natural and harmonious culture. The second should be, to bring the child in contact with such materials and surroundings in nature, art, and social life, and to so adjust these to his inner needs and capacities, that his powers of perception, acquisition and understanding will be harmoniously exercised; and on the other hand, to supply ample opportunity for the child's self-activity in doing, expressing, inventing, and creating. Now let us consider the character of

5. *The Course of Study and Work for the Model School.* For some time I have been fully convinced that the courses of study generally in use in most of our schools are more or less crude and unphilosophical, compiled with little reference to the child's natural unfolding, training, and practical needs in life. The customs of making wide distinctions between subjects closely related, of cutting up subjects and inserting them at different periods in the course, of aiming to prepare all children for literary and professional careers, are false in principle and more or less pernicious in practice. The child-mind unfolds and is ready to receive the elements of all subjects of study about the same time. In the true kindergarten the elements of all subjects of study are brought to the child-mind according to his development and capacity. In a scientifically-arranged course of study, the child-mind must be regarded as the center, and have all subjects arranged in concentric circles around it. Each subject grows in depth, breadth, and divides into branches, as the child-mind widens in its horizon and penetrates outward. So, wherever the child should happen to break off his course of study, his education up to that point should be full and rounded, and his chances for success in life much increased.

I have prepared such a symmetrical and scientific outline course of study for another purpose, and will present here its essential features for the work of the Model School. It extends over the period from the kindergarten to the high school, representing the development of the kindergarten system and the application of these improved methods to all subjects in the school and the whole being carefully adjusted to the growing capacity of the child. It recognizes the fact that when the little child is brought within the influence of the kindergarten and school, we must continue Nature's education. The stock and store of ideas gathered during infancy, mostly in play, form a nucleus around which is gathered all the knowledge in concentric circles ever attained by the child in after years; and the powers called forth in the child's early play-life, in gathering these ideas and impressions, are the same powers that enable him to reach his triumphs of thought and action in after years. Thus around the child's early store of knowledge and impressions as a center, the kindergarten work — the gifts, occupations, games, songs, exercises and all fundamental subjects of study leading the child to nature, art and social life, should be arranged in a circle. In the kindergarten the child should receive instructions and training in Language and Music. E

pression; in Form, Drawing, Coloring, and Modeling; in Number, Size, and Value; in Biology—Plant, Animal, and Human Life; in the Elements of Geography and Physics; in Social Sciences; in Physical and Manual Exercises; and in all-sided expression in Making, Modeling, Drawing, and Coloring. These kindergarten subjects form the basis upon which all after education should be built, on the same principle and in the same spirit. Related subjects are arranged in groups. Each subject is presented to the child, as a whole, according to his stage of development, the knowledge and skill required always being within the child's capacity. For the sake of clearness and convenience, the course is arranged in

6. *Five Concentric Developing Circles.* Each circle includes two years of work, and provides for two grades of pupils. Children are received into the Kindergarten Circle from three and a half and four to seven. From the child's early store of knowledge as a center, and with all his ideas deepened, broadened and clarified, and all his powers developed harmoniously in the Kindergarten, his mind penetrates in its growth into the other developing circles, constantly widening in all directions to ever clearer and greater depths of insight, to ever greater powers of control, thought, and creation. As the mind in each stage of development grows out of its preceding stage, so the work of each circle grows out of and continues the work of the preceding circle, always presenting the subjects as a whole in their freshness and attractions to the child, and involving such branches of knowledge and skill as are adapted to his capacity. Thus the Primary grows out of the Kindergarten Circle, the Elementary out of the Primary, the Intermediate out of the Elementary, and the Grammar out of the Intermediate. This provides for ten years' work below the high school, and a completion of the course regularly, at fourteen and fifteen. The same principle and spirit of development shall be applied throughout all the circles, with varying conditions, methods, and devices to suit the child's growing nature and needs. Each circle shall not contain over thirty or forty children, limiting the capacity of the Model School from one hundred and fifty to two hundred, below the high school. For the purpose of work and teaching, each circle shall be graded into two classes, and each class into groups and sections, according to their development and ability. Each circle shall be placed in charge of a teacher as principal of the circle, who may have one or more assistants from the professional training classes. The three-fold aim of education must be kept constantly in view. The child's powers must be developed; he must be led into paths of interesting and useful knowledge, and be trained into a skillful, efficient, productive, and creative being. In short, be fitted for complete living in the world, as it is to-day and will be to-morrow. Hence, it is all-important that we look to

7. *The Scientific and Industrial Bearings of the Model-School Work.* The greatest defects in the current methods and systems of education are in failing to call forth the child's special endowments and individual characteristics

in early life, and in failing to cultivate the expressive, productive and creative powers, and as a consequence fail to fit our youth for any special purpose in life. These results are only possible when the child is enabled to express himself through the work of his own hands; when he is permitted to learn through his own experience, under the wise direction and aid of the teacher—to learn by doing. This is in accord with the experience of mankind, and is nature's method of bringing out all the child's special talents in their greatest distinctness. True education should prepare the child for complete living in the world, and activity of body and mind—work—is indispensable to the fulfillment of his destiny, to a full enjoyment of life, and realization of its highest purposes—to complete living. Therefore work becomes a necessary, natural and powerful factor in all true education. Not brute force and mechanical drudgery, but free, spontaneous, vigorous, intelligent, happy work; work that expresses outwardly the child's conceptions, mental states, and inner being, and that is necessarily connected with his inner wants and purposes; work that is a never-failing source of joy, goodness, and growth.

No attempt whatever should be made in such work below the high school to prepare for special trades, farther than to bring out the child's endowments, cultivate sense, instinct, feeling, and faculty, and skill in the use of the hands. The educational value of such work must be the sole motive for its introduction into the common school. The principal aim is its value in developing mind and moulding character. Fitting for special trades and callings must be the work of after years—of the manual-training school and university. A fitting vocation will come to every child, and that, too, in harmony with his nature, if he is only properly educated. It should be the end and aim of all education to train children to work, to love and respect work, to work economically and systematically, to put their minds and hearts into their work. This manual training develops sense, cultivates instinct, feeling, and faculty, skills the hand, trains the eye, and involves the activity of the whole child—physical and mental, individual and social. The hand and eye are the shortest avenues to the brain. They furnish the mind most of its ideas. The hand is the balance-wheel of the mind. The highest development comes from a union of the skillful hand and cultured brain. By such work the mind as well as the body grows, for it strengthens and develops every power it brings into action.

The results and successes of such work are the most powerful agents for arousing the inward or receptive activities of the mind. They develop the senses, instincts, feelings, perceptive powers, and balance the mental states; they stimulate observation, attention, experiment, expression, and all related activities. They cultivate the judgment, comparison, and logical powers, and develop the creative imagination—always nurturing it toward the higher ideals of the good, the beautiful, and the true. They furnish ocular proofs of inner progress, and growing ability to do ever more and ever better work.

They arouse in the child the sense of power, the consciousness of progress, and thus generate in him an abiding faith to reach his highest ideals—the very essence of morality, religion, and culture. Thus work is a great humanizer—physically, morally, mentally, and spiritually; it gives greater power, and moulds in the child a higher character—the soul of all true education.

This industrial education should be introduced into the common schools mainly for its educational value—for its worth in bringing out special talents, in sense-culture, hand-training, and the development of faculty; in the high school both for its educational and technical value; and in the university mainly for its technical value—for the purpose of fitting for special callings, pursuits and professions in life. Now, it is best supplied in the common schools by the kindergarten system, and its applications; in the high schools and universities, by the application of the same laws and principles. To carry out this scientific and industrial training fully, there should be, in connection with the Model School,

8. Laboratory and Manual-Training Rooms. Many of these occupations and manual exercises can be carried out in the regular school-rooms. This is true with nearly all the work in the kindergarten and primary circles. But in the other three circles laboratory and manual-training rooms would be of great value. There should be a room for a science cabinet for the Model School. It should contain the collections of interesting specimens of plants, animals, minerals, and student hand-work and inventions. A part of the room should be equipped for simple experiments in the natural and physical sciences. A second room should be furnished with low, plain tables, and equipped for paper, card-board, and light fabric work. A third room furnished for drawing, clay modeling, coloring, and wood engraving; and a fourth fitted up with simple tools for light wood and metal work. The occupations in these rooms are to be at times under the supervision of the teachers, and at times pupils should be allowed to follow their own inclinations freely. This will develop in the boys and girls special talents and aptitudes, one of the crowning traits of a successful life. Such work will give free opportunity for all-sided expression in making, modeling, drawing, and inventing. It will make the child a productive and creative being, and cultivate in him a consciousness of power, a love and respect for work, and inspire him with the worthy ambition to fit himself specially for some useful and honorable pursuit.

If the work of the Model School has been done on the principles, methods and in the spirit mentioned, all the child's power will have been unfolded and cultivated, and there will be a harmony in his feeling, thinking, and doing. Ambitions of manhood and womanhood will now begin to fire the youth. Future occupations, enterprises, and dreams will become positive guiding-stars. The feelings strong and intense; the social and moral powers active and controlling; the imagination vivid and productive; and the reasoning powers well balanced and active; the will becomes a ruling

power in social and moral affairs. Up to this point the youth's education has been of a general character, including all subjects, and it should be full and rounded. Now he is ready for the high school, which shall combine both the general and special phases of education; and from here he may pass to the university, where his education should be largely special—fitting him for his life-work. Since many teachers have to teach the high-school grades, a necessary part of the Model School is,

9. *A Model High School.* In developing the Model School, it may be necessary to start with the Kindergarten and Primary Circles, and develop the higher circles from these, according to time and circumstances. The first five circles including all the work in our common and grammar schools would be the Developing or Model School for preparing teachers for most of the positions in the public schools. Yet our Professional Training School would not be complete unless the Model School included a Model High School. This high school should include the sixth and seventh developing circles, and have good four-year courses of study and training. Pupils may be admitted from the developing school as early as fourteen and fifteen, and graduated, ready for the university, from eighteen to twenty. It should include all the branches usually taught in the high and normal schools, and some of those in colleges. The work should be divided into at least seven different lines or courses, permitting students to exercise their tastes and peculiar bias in choosing their lines of work and training, and leading them to similar special lines of work in the Professional Training School and University. The following lines of work should be clearly defined and presented in the Model High School:

(1.) Course in English and Social Sciences; in which the English language, American and English literature, history, civil government, political economy, physiology, anthropology, sociology, and psychology are prominent branches.

(2.) Course in English and Biology; in which botany, zoölogy, physiology, comparative anatomy, mineralogy, and geology are essentials.

(3.) Course in English and Physical Sciences; in which geology, physics, chemistry, and astronomy are prominent features.

(4.) Course in English and Mathematics; in which algebra, geometry, surveying, mechanics, and physics are prominent.

(5.) Course in Modern and Ancient Languages; in which English, French, German, and Latin are prominent.

(6.) Course in Manual and Industrial Training for Boys; in which the manual occupations, industrial professions, useful and fine arts, and applied sciences are prominent, leading to mechanics, engineering, engraving, sculpturing, and architecture.

(7.) Course in Arts and Industrial Training for Girls; in which domestic science, decorative, plastic, useful and fine arts are the essentials, leading to

home-making, decorating, engraving, modeling, and all pursuits that will ennoble womanhood.

There should be special halls and shops fitted up for the students in the manual-training courses. And in all the courses students should have practice in laboratories, experimental and manual-training rooms. The same principles of education should pervade all the work, found in the other circles of the Model School. Space will not permit me to dwell on these beautiful principles, methods and devices of the New Education; but I must say a word about the character and fitness of

10. *The Teachers in the Model School.* Granting the conditions favorable for the development of such a model school, its success will depend almost wholly upon the character and fitness of the teachers. There should be a perfect spirit of harmony, confidence and coöperation in all the circles, to the end of securing a unity of work and purpose throughout the school. The Principal of the Professional Training School should be Superintendent of the Model School. The Model High School should have a Principal, and each of its teachers in charge of a special line or department of work. The principal of the Grammar Circle should be Principal of the Developing School, and each developing circle should be placed in charge of a teacher as principal of that circle, who is eminently fitted for that stage of development in knowledge, in insight, in the psychology of childhood, in professional knowledge and skill, in love and sympathy for children, and in all the qualities of head and heart needed for uplifting and moulding character. I would have each teacher lead her children through the work of one developing circle, and if possible through more than one. This obviates friction, loss of time and energy in becoming acquainted and in studying each child's nature; and it secures that abiding interest on the part of the teacher for the child, and that love and confidence on the part of the child for the teacher, necessary to all true teaching. I would allow each teacher the largest freedom in opinion, in work and in methods, and expect a perfect loyalty, devotion and consecration to the plans, principles, work, and aims of the school. In short, the work of the Model School should take its tone, coloring and character from the strength and individuality of the teachers.

It is true, ideal men and women are hard to find, but I believe there are more in the teacher's profession than any other. I have an abiding conviction that the ideal teacher is one who consecrates herself to that higher humanity found in every little child, no matter how ragged, no matter how neglected; who feels that her experience, her broader and deeper insight, are but even exchanges for the little child's freshness, simplicity, beauty, and love; who has an abiding conviction that "the hope of the world lies in childhood," and is so consecrated to her noble work of uplifting humanity, that she will cary love and light into the dark haunts of society, where love and light were never known before, and take the little child by the hand, leading him up and out into the sunlight of goodness, truth, and beauty.

With such insight, confidence and coöperation, such love and devotion to the cause of childhood, the Model School would be a double blessing—— it would bless the children, and it would bless the coming teachers.

II.—PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION AND TRAINING.

1. *Its Character and Aims.* On the continent of Europe there are so many excellent examples of true normal or professional training schools. In this country many of our normal schools are on the narrow gauge, and are side-tracked on other than professional grounds. They furnish a fair high school course of instruction in one or two lines, and that is about all. In the majority of normal schools the professional instruction and training practically amounts to but little. And under their present conditions, these schools cannot grow any more, for the principals regard them as perfect. It is hard to understand why the managers of these schools persist in duplicating the work of academies and high schools at a great expense to the state, when teachers need professional instruction and training so much. However, there are a number of honorable exceptions in the East, where normal schools have caught the spirit and methods of the New Education and are leading in progress. And recently training schools have sprung up, infused with the principles and methods of the Froebel System, and are doing excellent work.

In the professional instruction and training, I would profit by the principles and experience carefully tested in the Old and New World. The work in this department should be distinctly professional. The aims should be to teach and train kindergartners and teachers in the Science of Human Nature and Psychology of Childhood; in the Science and Art of Kindergarten and teaching; in the Science, Art and History of Education; in the Froebel System and its applications; in Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology and History of Civilization, and all branches specially bearing upon human development. In such a school young men and women will be trained for their life-work, and become skillful, enthusiastic, intelligent and able teachers, disseminating the true principles and methods of the New Education among other teachers and the people. The offices of the kindergartner and teacher are so important, I should have a high

2. *Standard of Admission.* In personal qualifications, I would expect as far as possible a sound mind in a sound body, and a well-balanced nature; and above all, a pure, good and cheerful heart, an expressive face, a genuine love and sympathy for childhood, and a love and admiration for the good, the true and the beautiful in character; and a sufficient vocal and musical ability to sing well and naturally. In academic preparation, I would admit the graduates of the Model High School, graduates of other good high and normal schools, graduates of colleges and universities, and teachers, as students and observers to the professional department. Hence, I would put much stress upon the character and breadth of

3. *The Professional Courses of Instruction and Training.* These courses

should fit teachers for at least four distinct lines of teaching: for kindergartening and primary teaching; for the common and grammar schools; for the high schools; for teaching special subjects. There should be at least three parallel courses:

(1.) Fitting for Kindergartening and Primary Teaching; including Child Nature and Psychology of Childhood, Science and Art of Kindergartening, Special Training with kindergarten materials, Kindergarten and Primary Methods, History of Education and Educational Reformers, Manual Training, Philosophy of Education.

(2.) Fitting for Teaching and School Management in common and high schools; including Psychology of Childhood, Principles and Methods of the Kindergarten, Science and Art of Teaching, Methods of Teaching Special Branches, School Management, School Systems and Supervision, History of Education, Scientific and Industrial Education, Philosophy of Education.

(3.) Fitting for Teaching Special Branches, as drawing, science, and manual training, and including special instructions and training in the subject, the principles, methods and devices of teaching it.

These courses should include at least two years' work, and professional diplomas and degrees conferred when completed: the degree of Bachelor of Teaching upon graduates of high schools and persons of equivalent education, and Master of Teaching upon graduates of colleges, universities, post-graduates, and worthy teachers. Every graduate in the Kindergarten Training Course should be able to teach in the primary, and every graduate in Teaching and School Management should at least understand the principles and methods of the kindergarten, and be enthused with its spirit. This will knit the kindergarten and school-work closely together, and hasten the time when the New Education will reform the entire work and methods of the school. Now, many of our graduated kindergartners cannot teach, even in the primary grades, and many of our teachers are quite well satisfied not to know anything about the kindergarten system and its applications. And in giving the special training in the art and materials of the kindergarten, some lines of work have larger educational bearings than others. These should receive more attention—especially the improvements, inventions, new applications, and growth of the system. The very soul of the kindergarten system is growth. I should encourage everything in the system that properly cultivates the beautiful, but I should exclude all tendencies, often prevalent, to degrade the work into fancy-work pastimes.

As a means of liberalizing the culture and training, the students in each course should pursue a course of professional reading and investigation, under the supervision of the instructors. Reviews of reading should be made a part of the class-room work. There would be no room for pedagogical dogmas and conceits. The aim and spirit of all professional work should be the culture of the child's nature and character according to the highest

ideals of the good, the beautiful, and the true. Both students and teachers would overcome, as far as possible, the defects in their own early training and grow constantly toward the ideal. It is very important, then, that the elements of growth be found in

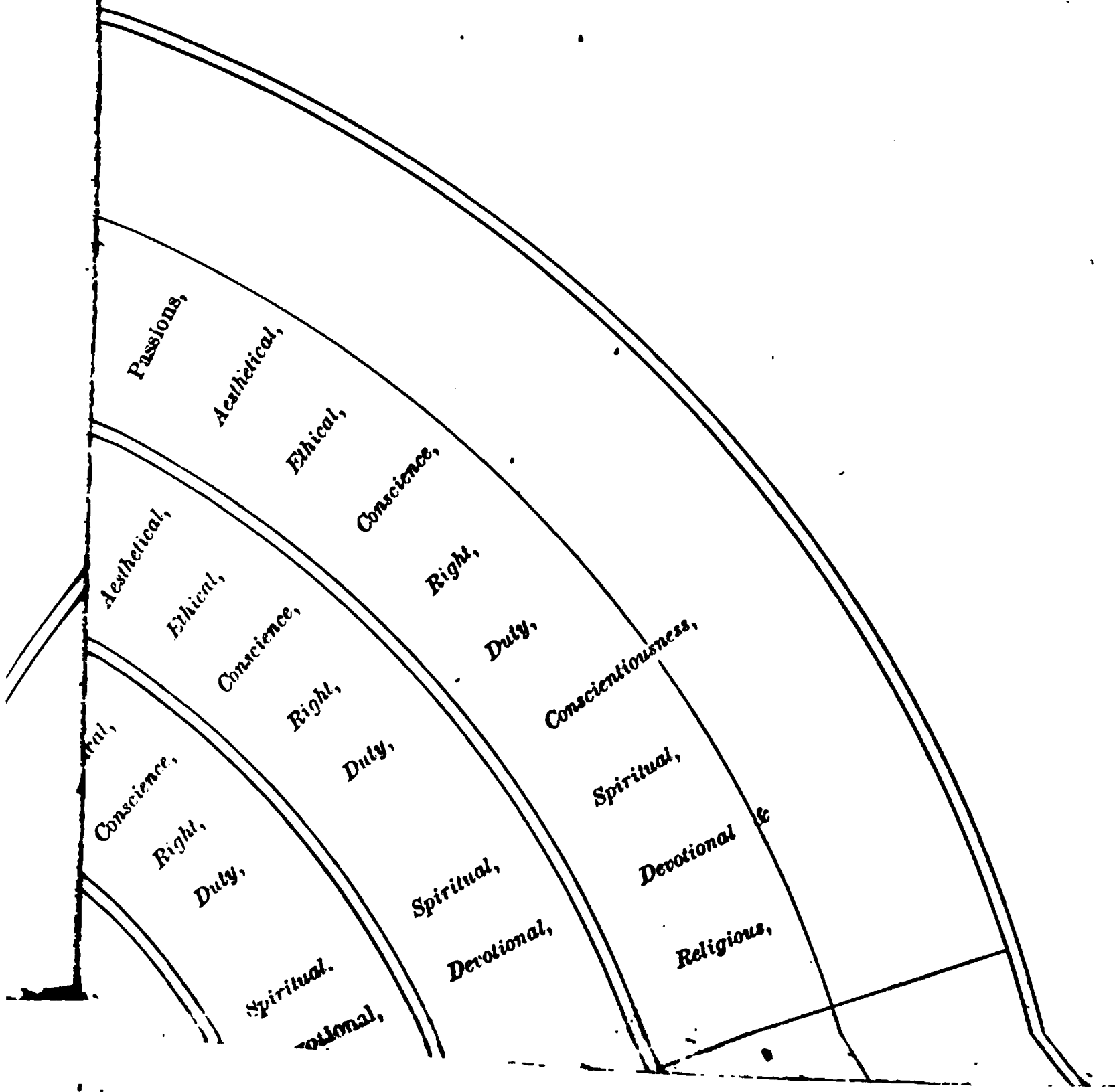
4. *The Instructors and Training Teachers.* The Principal of the Professional Training School should be Professor of Psychology of Childhood Science, Art and History of Education, and Superintendent of the Model School. He should have general supervision over all the school, directing, coördinating, stimulating and inspiring the work to the end of harmonious development. Before both departments of the school are fully developed he should be assisted by a special instructor in Principles and Methods, and supervisor of the practice-work. The Principal of each circle in the Model School should be the training teacher and special instructor in methods and devices of teaching for that circle. The kindergarten trainer should be assisted in her special training-work by a regular assistant kindergarten teacher and by the Principal in the science and art of kindergartening. The teachers in the Model High School should each be a training teacher and instructor of methods in their respective branches. From time to time, lectures should be given to the professional students by prominent educators and specialists. Each instructor must not only be a student in his special line, and in psychology and education, but he must be able to teach, and train teachers how to teach children. And the students must apply these principles, methods and instructions in

5. *Observation and Practice-Teaching.* At certain hours each week the Model School should be open for observation and practice-teaching by the students, under the supervision of the superintendent and training teachers. The groups, sections, classes and work of the Model School should not be disorganized for the observing and practice-teaching. Observation by each student should begin the term before her practice-teaching, and at least during the last year of her course she should have both observation and practice-work. The observation should extend to the system, organization, classification, principles and methods of teaching. Each student should keep a record of observation made, and at times report the same to the council of instructors for criticism and approval.

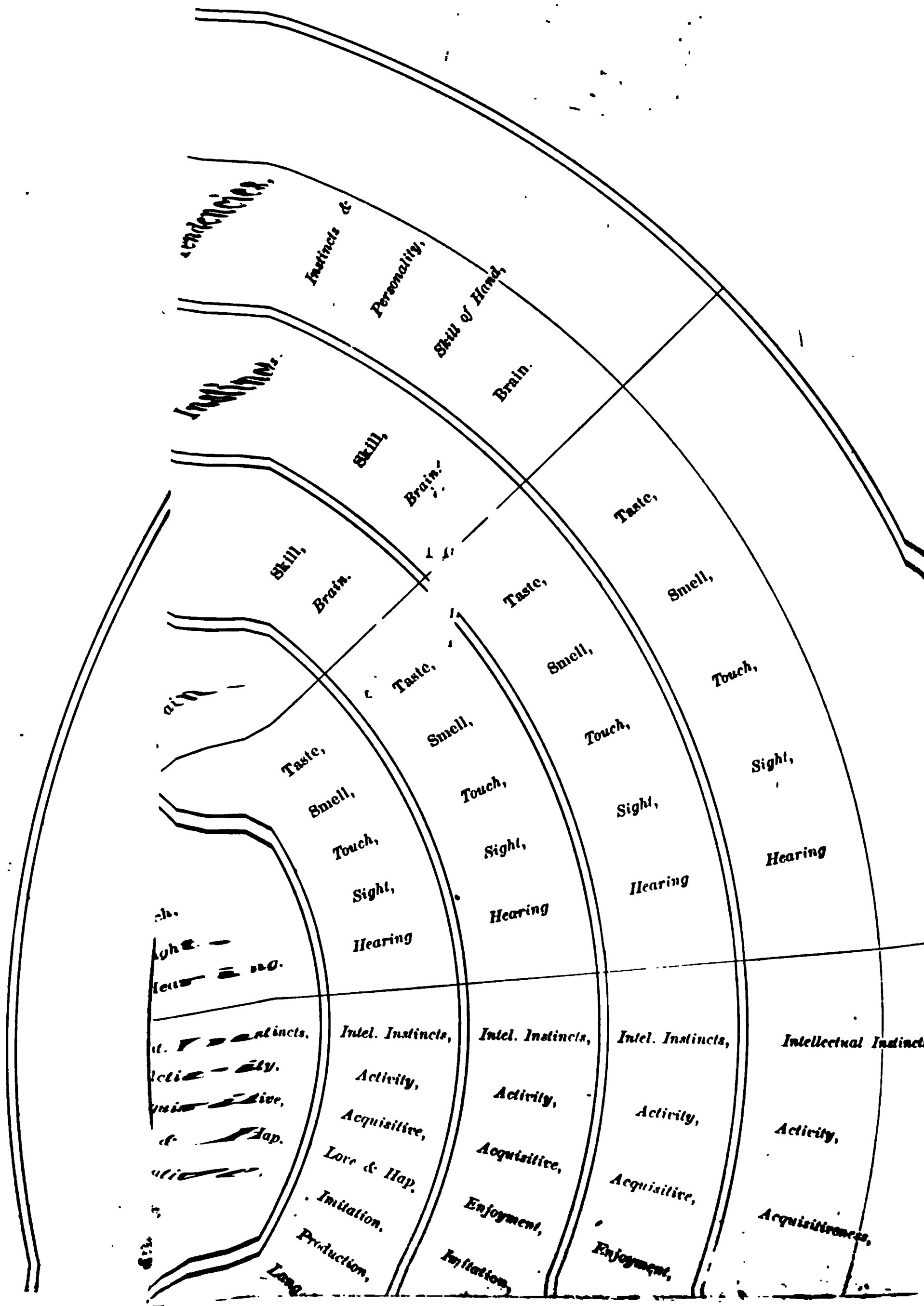
In order to prevent the children from suffering from empiricism in the practice-work, each student should prepare an outline of her lessons, and submit the same to the training teachers for their correction and approval before giving. These model lessons should be given in the presence of the training teachers and interested students. The students should observe and practice at first, in the Model School, in order of the developing circles and grades. They should be placed in charge of a group of children at first, then a section, a class, and a circle, according to the skill and ability they show in teaching and managing. In time the student should be put to teaching a special class for a longer period, according to her ability and

ION.

PLATE II—Psychology of Childhood—represents Development, and Growing Capacity and Skill of time. It aims to represent the developing psychology upon the most approved psychological principles. The expressed are not absolute, but approximate. The entire study of the growing nature of the whole child, a physical being, a being of Sense, Instinct, Feeling, with his nature as influenced by heredity and environment, has been regarded as natural science, having



HOOD.



Students fitting for kindergartening and primary teaching should devote most of their practice in these circles; and those for common and high school work should devote most of their time to these grades, wherever their special lines of work may be. The training teachers should adopt kind, patient, and frank personal criticism; and the principal should have a weekly council of all the instructors and teachers for criticism, suggestions and commendation on the observations and practice teaching. Students concerned should be admitted to these meetings. Model lessons may be given before this council and the professional classes by the instructors. All model lessons and practice-work, aiming to fit the teacher for her work, should be under circumstances similar to those under which she has to work.

Now, my friends, you have kindly followed me through this brief statement of what I think should constitute a model Professional Training School. I must trust in your insight, your experience, and your love of the cause, not to regard these views as Utopian and impractical. My own thoughts, experience and observations have been broadened and confirmed by the writings and work of others. I am especially indebted to such leaders in practical educational reform, as Hailmann, Parker, McAlister and Woodard, for their thoughts and experience. And I was delighted in a recent examination of the report of the Committee on Normal School Education, reported by the National Council of Education at Saratoga in 1885, to find that my plans for a Professional Training School had anticipated and included all the features and recommendations of the report. This very able report, based upon the principles and experience tested in this country and abroad, recommends that our normal schools have model schools, beginning in the kindergarten and including the common and high-school grades, with observation and practice teaching, and that good professional courses of study and training be maintained. Let us hope that more of our normal schools will catch this spirit of progress, and move into their proper field of work.

Progress and philanthropy are the watchwords of our age. Scientific and industrial schools are springing into existence everywhere. Here in this city may be seen the wise, practical and munificent enterprise of the Coddington Polytechnic College, dedicated to the scientific and industrial phases of the New Education. Yonder may be seen the rising halls of the noble, unexampled, practical philanthropy of the Stanford University, dedicated to the broadest human culture, with its foundations in the kindergarten system and its conceptions so liberal as to include among its schools of learning a professional training college for all classes of teachers. Let us hope that our men will rise into the region of inspired thought and philanthropy, and see the goodness, truth and beauty in our great cause, and make it possible for us to realize these more perfect conditions of human culture and character.

DISCUSSION.

MRS. C. W. DOHRMANN, OF CALIFORNIA: The kindergarten prepares the child's mind, by means of natural unfolding for the reception of those truths which the public schools are to teach.

The child being a part of the universe, we should endeavor to raise it to fill properly its place therein, and not merely to perfection of self, in such a manner that it may be in perfect unity with self, mankind, and God. We should not destroy its individuality, but assimilate the same with the whole, so that it may lend its charms to complete radiance and perfection. As Pestalozzi justly expresses it, "Industry, the physical activity of our race, is the true, sacred, and eternal means for the union of the whole circuit of our powers into a single common force, the force of humanity. It trains the understanding, guards the powers and purity of life from the deadly wasting of the senses, closes the gates of imagination against error, blunts the loquacious point of the idle tongue, preserves the sense of duty in our nature from ruin, and leads away from foibles."

Industrial instruction is more educative than mere knowledge instruction - "We learn by doing," and in *doing right* we learn *to be* right. Industry is the guide also to morality, and without it we can obtain no harmonious development. For the people, it is far more important. As the public-school system was devised for the people, it is but just that its demands for such education be satisfied. Rousseau says: "If I employ a child in the workshop instead of chaining him to a book, then his *hands* work to the benefit of his mind. He becomes a sage and thinks himself only a laborer." Can you dispute the fact that by means of such education we get clearer conceptions than by merely appropriating those of our instructors? We sharpen, by means of daily occupations, our mind, learn to find relations, trace similarities and contrasts, invent and originate, and thus create a love for reflection and study. Education is the development of the *activities* of the human being. The physical phenomena manifesting themselves at the very earliest stages of life, impressions are first obtained through them, and given expression to. We must therefore endeavor to gain perfection of thought and soul, by leading on to it through perfect and desirable impressions, gotten in a natural manner from the child's immediate surroundings and actual experiences. The kindergarten system is the only perfected system by which this is possible, and not until its application has become universal and extends from the cradle to the college, nay, all through life, will we have obtained as near perfection as possible for mortals. Then, indeed, shall we find self-helpfulness, industry, economy, brotherly love, generosity, reverence and patriotism, all that is good and noble, in the path of each one's life.

The object of education being to fit for activities of future life, it is self-

apparent that so-called manual or industrial training is more important than mere knowledge training, and it is the duty of every conscientious educator to give assistance to the introduction of a system which tends to such purposes.

The spread of kindergartens here and elsewhere on this continent, wherever properly introduced and fairly tested, has been phenomenal; yet many of its best results are dwarfed, if not lost, by stopping such instruction when the child is old enough to enter the school proper. It has been the lack of connection between the kindergarten and school, that has prevented so many from recognizing its true merits, which are inestimable. The San Francisco school-board has shown its superior wisdom by incorporating it into the public-school system, and it is of its bearing on public-school instruction in particular that I desire to speak to you to-day.

The child, when he enters the public schools, has not yet completed his formative period, and if he have even completed a three or four-years course in the kindergarten and have his observative and creative faculties thereby strengthened and his mind prepared for instruction, that instruction should not take the shape of abstractions to be poured into the little brain, but should be gathered from the concrete in the most delightful manner, while his little body should through healthful exercise (as in motion-songs and games) be harmoniously developed with his mind and heart. This you can only accomplish by the kindergarten system. Give him his language lessons by means of conversation about his beautiful surroundings, let *him* talk, teach him to clothe his thoughts only in desirable and choice language, don't ask him to use your or others' sentences, which are thoughts foreign and therefore strange and incomprehensible to him. Teach him number and arithmetic by means of treasures dear to him and to be found in every child's pocket—shells, seeds, flowers, etc. Teach him addition by accumulation and compilation of these; subtraction, by taking away some and constructing these into some other objects; division, by his dividing his treasures among his playmates; multiplication, by grouping together his own and those of his associates possessing like quantity. Teach him reading by first assisting him to read correctly the book of nature and pictures, then words and stories. By before-mentioned exercises in number you will develop the fundamental principles of political economy. Can you doubt for a moment that the child who has by means of symbolism endowed his little sticks or blocks with all the qualities of the real object and manipulated the same freely, to-day in imagination planting two peach-trees for mamma, a nut-tree for Willie and a cherry-tree for baby, to-morrow possessing papa's cane, mamma's broom, brother's whip and sister's pencil—can you, I say, doubt that such a child has a more complete and real comprehension of the number 4 and the numbers that combine to form it, than has the child who has been taught, as, alas, too many are yet, that $2+2$ are four?

So also of the child who, while manipulating and dividing his blocks,

gives equal parts to mamma, teacher, and friends—he will understand fractions and their manipulations far better than those taught by mere book method. Not only does he learn arithmetic, but recognizes that every one and everything has a place to fill in this beautiful world.

Instructions in form, measure, weight, and size are conveyed through the various gifts. Drawing, sewing, perforating, etc., teach the same principle and give full scope to the creative talent.

Natural sciences are begun through contact with natural objects and thorough investigation into their construction, utility, etc. History, patriotism, the duties of citizens, are all taught by games and conversation. The child, from mere infancy and through association with those of his own taste and wants, is led to recognize the necessity of government.

Labor being the center of youthful education, it should come to the foreground at least until the tenth year, so as to afford opportunities for the exercise of the creative activities which at that period predominate. The labor and mental instruction should be coëqual, and, say after the fourteen year, the latter predominate.

The kindergarten system leads the child on to reason for himself, and theologically. Hence those who have had that kind of instruction find but little difficulty in analyzing subjects presented to them later on in school-life, and become deeper, earnest students. It develops love and appreciation of work. Those who have had it turn to manual labor as a relief from mental strain and boys and girls will spend their spare moments at work, not, alas, as many do, in the streets. Through contact with all that is beautiful and artistic they become beautiful, noble, artistic, themselves, and are gradually led on to unity with God.

Can we hesitate any longer what to do? Has not the progress of the little kindergarten children who have gone into the public schools fully demonstrated the benefit of such early training? Are we not told that they complete the course by a year or more sooner than others? How much more rapid would be their progress could they continue by the same method, and how much greater perfection would they attain! It has been only the lack of the connecting link—call them kindergarten elementary schools if you will—that has prevented so much of the good results from being apparent. Indeed, some of the best results do not manifest themselves until later life. But it is sure that the child's mind is naturally and healthfully prepared for knowledge instruction of later years.

Then let us not rest until we, the standard-bearers of the kindergarten cause in California, shall have succeeded in our earnest endeavors to have it incorporated into our state public-school system; until it has become part of the entire public schools of the United States. We cannot afford to deny our children the privilege of entrance into that paradise of childhood, nor overlook the advantages of this superior system which would train them to become perfect men and women. Those of the public teachers who have

studied and applied the method are unanimous in its praise, and the beautiful and complete exhibit from St. Louis, which exemplifies its work from babyhood up to normal-school course, cannot but bring conviction to all true advocates of universal perfect education.

May our glorious state—known for perfection of its climate, soil, and productions; the liberality and culture of its prominent men, and their noble efforts in behalf of education—be still further enhanced by the speedy establishment of public kindergartens for every child within the state. For we cannot afford to overlook the welfare and education of these tiny mites, who in turn will fill the places of the present men and women. They are as important as any questions that concern the future welfare of our Golden State.

MRS. KATE D. WIGGIN, OF CALIFORNIA: I wish to speak briefly on the Kindergarten department of this Ideal Professional School, as a *school of life* for women. If there ever was any one thing upon which God might set his seal of approval, and which men, women and children might all agree to bless and be thankful for, it is the attention which is being paid to the thoughtful study of childhood, and the consecration of women to its service. The results of education depend on its beginnings, and these are in the hands of women. Here at least is a partial solution of the "woman question." It does not restrict woman's sphere, it enlarges it rather—only calling her more earnestly to become wiser, higher, better, stronger, the equal of men, destined as she is to become the mother and educator of men. If anyone fears that the higher education will unfit women for the duties that lie before most of them, he will see in the attempt to unite broad mental training with sweet, gentle heart-culture and systematic, sympathetic study of childhood, a certain corrective, if any be needed. (Men are so anxious, by the way, lest women should be too "strong-minded," I wonder it so seldom occurs to them to worry lest they be too "*weak-minded!*")

It is not enough that divine ideas should exist in the world: there must be the necessary devotion, endurance, and self-sacrifice to carry them out. The male genius of humanity begets the ideas of which each century has need, (at least, men say so,) but the female genius has to work them out—and "*to help* is to do the work of the world."

We are training our girls too much like celibates at present, and if I only had the eloquence to prove that every woman should finish her education by one year's, or two years' contemplation and study of childhood and its needs, I should feel that I had done an inestimable service to humanity.

This need would be met, not so much by the establishment of more training schools as by making those that exist better models—higher ideals.

This kindergarten-work we are becoming accustomed to value as an educational force at the beginning of a child's life in the nursery and school; we are pretty well convinced of its mighty power as a means of reaching the children of the masses in philanthropic ways, by teaching them at the

beginning what is good, beautiful, and true, as well as by giving their dormant faculties a spur to higher action. But what we do not understand fully, I think, is what this kind of work is doing for women; for the daughters—the future mothers—of the nation.

It is giving them new and consecrated views of motherhood, childhood and of the profession of teaching; giving them a method of education from Nature's own heart, which they may use in the "sweet, safe corner of household fire," behind the heads of their own children, or for the children of others. But this is as yet imperfectly understood. A gentleman remarked at some late graduation exercises—and the same thing has been often said before: "Your class seems so charming, and intelligent, earnest, it is really a pity that your work and their talent should be largely lost; but I suppose that most of them will marry in a few years, like all other accomplishments their newly-acquired knowledge will be dropped; like their piano-playing and their French." "My dear sir," replied, "you cannot have a conception of what kindergarten training means; it is general as well as technical. I suppose many of these young women will marry. I will even go so far (privately) as to hope it. They are vowed to celibacy that I am aware of, and a man would be blind and stupid indeed who could pass them by! But the beauty of kindergarten training is this: It will not only make them better kindergartners, teachers, governesses, but better daughters, sisters, wives, and mothers—yes, sweeter, more cheerful old maids—simply because it makes them better women."

The training, if it be true training, and approaches that which McGrew pleads for in his paper, so addresses the deepest, truest instincts of women, that its hold grows more and more irresistible the farther the student advances. It has that in it which ought to make a woman more thoughtful, broad-minded, earnest, logical, original, self-reliant, and generous. If it does not, then the soil is too barren for such sweet flowers to grow, but in any case the nature will be enriched.

Under its influence girlish thoughtlessness and frivolity slip off like an outer garment and the true woman stands revealed, bright, earnest, true, strong—not perfect, but longing to be and trying to be; a woman who has lived with children; beloved, because she has loved; giving, because she has given; growing, because she has lived; developing, because she has thought; happy, because she has conferred happiness; good, or at least better, through trying to make others better.

No, my dear sirs, never tell us that our work is wasted when we have, in part, learned these things; but rather apply yourselves diligently to the creation of some sort of training school for young men or in fifty years there will be none good enough for our country!

Even the ideal training school will not make of all its pupils ideal kindergartners. That is something too high to be reached with ease; but

who aims at a star shoots higher than he who aims at a tree." The kindergarten is not by any means a perfect thing as yet, but it is on the right track, and it has the *power to grow*. It is full of eager life, aspiration, and teachableness. It is often misunderstood, misinterpreted, misapplied, but its destiny is that of all truth: it may be delayed, it cannot be prevented. We have not as yet the ideal training school, nor have we, alas, the ideal kindergarten as Froebel meant it, partly because we have not the ideal woman — and she is not born yet, but she is going to be — sometime! How can we get this Ideal Training School? Only by hoping, praying, working, improving, studying, insisting, and standing for it; by cherishing all attempts in the right direction and discouraging all trivial, superficial or unworthy aims; and by helping each other in all high aspirations for the intellectual advancement of our pupils; and above all, for that true culture of heart and soul without which their teaching must ever be fruitless.

Let us help each other. When the *mother heart* of the world is developed, what may we not do! There is no limit to our powers; for in one sense they are not ours — their source is inexhaustible. "It is the unused pump that sucks." If our bounty be dry, reluctant, cross, and wheezy, it is because we do not continuously summon and draw it out. But if, like the patriarch Jacob's, our well is deep, it cannot be exhausted. While we draw upon it, it draws upon the unspent springs, the hillsides, the clouds, the air and the sea; and God himself must suspend and be bankrupt before we can fail. Let it be in us, springing up for others unto everlasting life.

PROCEEDINGS
AND
ADDRESSES
OF THE
ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July 18, 1888.

The Department of Elementary Instruction was called to order in B'nai B'rith Hall by President LeRoy D. Brown, of Nevada. The Secretary being absent, the place was declared vacant, and on motion E. C. Mobley, of Oregon, was elected to fill the vacancy. The valedictory address was then delivered by the retiring President, W. H. Bartholomew, of Kentucky.

The President delivered his inaugural address on the subject, "Greek Philosophy and Modern Education."

On motion, the following committees were appointed:

Committee on Nominations—A. L. Mann, California; H. S. Jones, Pennsylvania; Miss Virginia Welton, Nevada.

Committee on Resolutions—J. A. B. Lovett, Alabama; Orvis Ring, Nevada; Emily Ball, Ohio.

Committee to Report on Exhibits of Elementary Schools—Joseph O'Connor, California; W. C. Dovey, Nevada; M. M. Scott, Honolulu, H. I.; W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky; Miss A. L. Atwood, Oregon.

Miss Kate Newcomb Tupper read a paper on "Normal Training for Teachers of Elementary Schools."

Walter McNab Miller read a paper entitled "The Application of Arithmetic to Physical Science."

The program of this day's session was discussed by W. C. Dovey, of Nevada. The Department adjourned to meet at 2:30 P. M., July 19.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

The Department was called to order by President Brown. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

Erwin F. Palmer, Dresden, O., read a paper entitled "Scientific Methods in Teaching Geography."

The general discussion was opened by O. T. Corson, of Ohio, followed by H. Galbraith, of California.

F. B. Ginn, Oakland, California, read a paper on "Preparation for the Study of Arithmetic."

The following report of the Committee on Nominations was submitted and adopted:

For President, Joseph O'Connor, of California.

For First Vice-President, Miss Bettie A. Dutton, of Ohio.

For Second Vice-President, J. M. Dewberry, of Alabama.

For Secretary, R. K. Buehrle, of Pennsylvania.

Department adjourned to meet at 2:30 P. M., July 20.

THIRD SESSION.—JULY 20, 1888.

The Department was called to order by President Brown. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

The President expressed his gratification at the unusually large attendance, and the interest manifested in this Department.

M. M. Scott, of Honolulu, and G. W. Bothwell, of Louisiana, were introduced and briefly addressed the Department.

Mrs. L. A. Walker, Oakland, California, conducted a class exercise, *Receiving Class*, in a very interesting and entertaining manner.

The Secretary was instructed to express the congratulations of the Department to the Vice-President, Mrs. Agnes L. Rounds-Mathews, upon her marriage.

An address upon "Methods" was delivered by James G. Kennedy, San Francisco, California. This address was discussed by Miss Mary J. Titcomb of San José, California.

The Committee on Resolutions reported, in addition to the usual resolutions of thanks to the presiding officers and local committee, the following:

Resolved, That we are decidedly in favor of a higher standard of scholarship for graduates of normal schools.

Resolved, That we respectfully request the Executive Committee of the General Association to make an annual appropriation of not to exceed one hundred dollars to defray the necessary expenses of this Department.

The report was adopted, and the Department adjourned *sine die*.

E. C. MOBLEY, *Secretary*.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

GREEK PHILOSOPHY AND MODERN EDUCATION.

LEROY D. BROWN, RENO, NEVADA.

Before proceeding to the address assigned me to-day, allow me to congratulate the retiring President of this Department upon the marked success of his administration.

I wish also to thank you most heartily and sincerely for the distinguished honor you have conferred upon me in choosing me as your President.

For the subject which I propose to discuss, no apology is required to be made. It may, however, be necessary to explain to those who are not familiar with the work of this progressive age, that teachers even of elementary schools are accustomed to go to the highest sources of knowledge and inspiration.

Greek philosophy has for more than twenty centuries been an unfailing source of life and light to the world. Students, statesmen, philosophers, and teachers, for two thousand years, have sought knowledge, truth and wisdom at Athens, and their seeking has not been in vain. There is no important question to-day which is not indebted to Greek philosophy. There is no great thinker on this planet whose mind has not been quickened by Greek thought.

Our own vocation, the teacher's calling, owes much to Thales of Miletus, who taught that nature should be interpreted *upon the principles of the understanding*, and in doing this clearly foreshadowed, and most probably suggested the thought which led to the teachings of Bacon, Locke, and Rousseau, and consequently to the reforms undertaken by Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Horace Mann.

The doctrine of Pythagoras, that there is a unity and harmony in the universe, contained the germ of truth which bore fruit in the symmetrical training given to the youth of Athens, and is recognized in the best schools of our own times. Parmenides discovered the law of polarity in both physics and metaphysics, and explained the phenomena of nature by what he terms 'the mixture of two immutable elements,' called by Aristotle "heat and cold." Heraclitus showed that all things are in eternal flux, in uninteruptable motion and mutation, and that the supposed permanence of things is an illusion, thereby anticipating the nebular hypothesis of La Place and the theory of evolution.

The automic theory which was worked out by Leucippus and Democritus four centuries before the Christian era, while defective in some important

particulars, has served science to become what she is now—the helpful handmaid of civilization, the destroyer of superstition, and the arbiter of all educational disputes.

Anaxagoras postulated mind as the power in nature which acts as a moving cause and with rational design in producing physical phenomena thus anticipating the teachings of Butler and other writers on natural theology.

Protagoras, who set us the good example of asking a liberal salary for superior work, taught that man is the measure of all things; that the right of individual judgment belongs to each man; that in the family as well as in society, every man's experience, perception, and feelings must determine the course which is best for him to pursue. This philosophy, illuminated and wisely modified by Christianity, has given us our churches, our public schools, and our system of free government.

What Protagoras did for morals, Gorgias and Prodicus accomplished for rhetoric and politics, and for grammar and etymology. Indeed, there was no field of education that was not occupied and cultivated even before the advent of Socrates. Like every educational reformer, this inspired man believed that the improvement of society must proceed from the proper instruction of youth, and this belief led him to choose teaching as the vocation of his life. Xenophon, in his *Memorabilia*, says that Socrates was so pious that he did nothing without the sanction of the gods; so just that he never wronged anyone, even in the least degree; so much master of himself that he never preferred the agreeable to the good; so wise that in deciding on the better and the worse he never failed. If the character of Socrates was so perfect, he was the happiest mortal of antiquity, and his life will forever remain a model for those engaged in educational pursuits. He possessed the finest social qualities, was polite in his manners, cheerful amid misfortune and humble in prosperity. He was brave in battle, and modest always. Observant, thoughtful, and studious, he enjoyed the companionship of young men, and was fond of the best society. In him there was lacking no quality of greatness. All this means that he was the first of human teachers, as well as the noblest type of human excellence.

The best schools in this country, and in Europe, are indebted to Socrates for the improvements which he made in methods of instruction. It was the Socratic doctrine that virtue is knowledge, and this high estimate of knowledge induced him to spare no pains to discover it. Hence he taught that all sides of a question must be considered, and considered methodically. Only by the most careful inquiry in all directions could the truth be reached. Although Socrates, as a teacher, confined his labors to ethics, yet his method is of the highest value in the teaching of any subject. The aim of his method was that of developing in the student the power of independent thinking, and the purpose of right-living; and those must be poor teachers indeed, who study the positive and the negative sides of the Socratic method of instruction without benefit.

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Plato, the distinguished pupil of Socrates, was the first to complete a *scientific* system of philosophy. He reared, upon the foundation of Socrates, a structure magnificent and symmetrical. The Socratic method, modified by Plato in his Dialogues, became the instrument by which Greek philosophy attained the summit of its development. Plato, it is true, was an idealist, but in this utilitarian age the study of his writings cannot fail to be of service to every true teacher. The theories of education enunciated by Plato are based on what he believes to be the necessity of merging the individual into the general in matters of government. With him, each man's interest is secondary to the interest of all. This, it must be admitted, is a view too narrow and incomplete for our own country, in which the attempt to unite a strong government with great freedom to each individual is being made. The corruption in the politics of Athens contributed toward making Plato an advocate of an aristocracy, and in theory he preferred an unlimited monarchy to all other forms of government. To him is credited the familiar saying, that only when philosophers shall become rulers, or when those who are at present rulers shall philosophize fully and truly, and shall unite political power and philosophy together, will it be possible to elevate the state to its true purpose. I think you will agree that it would be better for America if all candidates for public honors were selected with Plato's estimate of civil service in view. But the theories of Plato are often very practical, and in his laws he governs the state by a constitution in which both monarchy and democracy are combined. He divides the people into three classes—rulers, warriors, and workers. The rulers make the laws; the warriors defend the state against its foes, and the workers provide the food, clothing and shelter for all the people.

Corresponding to these three classes and their functions were the virtues of wisdom, courage, and temperance; and from these arose justice, the virtue which united the whole for the good of all. Plato naturally devoted himself the least to the laboring class, but he gave almost equal attention to rulers and warriors, choosing the former from those of the latter who possessed both courage and wisdom. He set great store upon experience, and conferred the highest rank upon those only who had arrived at the age of fifty years.

To Plato the state was itself a school, in which all who were to participate in the government should be educated. The youth of the two higher ranks were to be trained in gymnastics, music, mathematics, philosophy, versification, and even in military science. Certainly we have improved upon the curriculum of the schools in Plato's ideal state, but I venture to say that there are American school committees and school superintendents, charged with the preparation of courses of study, who could read Plato's Republic and Plato's Laws with the greatest profit.

Aristotle, whose reign as king of philosophers succeeded that of Plato, was inductive in his method of investigation. He sought facts, phenomena, and from these proceeded to form conclusions. His method of inquiry, al-

though employed to some extent by preceding students and teachers of philosophy, was largely his own, for he not only improved upon what had been transmitted to him, but he also carried the inductive method so far in his investigations as to be led to create almost *de novo* several sciences unknown before him, including logic, natural history, and empirical psychology.

The principal work of Aristotle was in the field of physics. At the head of nature he places man. To woman he assigns a position inferior to that of man. His view on this subject has been the prevailing one, yet it is noteworthy that a different opinion has gradually but surely developed with the growth of public-school systems. He united ethics closely with physics. The moral element in man he regarded as the flower of his being, and unlike Socrates, who sought the foundation of morals in intelligence, and who believed that virtue can be taught, he held that virtue can be realized only by exercise; that men learn to live correctly by the practice of correct living. It is to Aristotle, therefore, that we are indebted for the definition that education consists of the foundation of good habits by their use. Aristotle taught that the end of all human efforts is happiness, and this he declared was a perfect activity in a perfect life.

In his notions of the state, Aristotle is more democratic than Plato. While he regards the state as higher than the family, and the family higher than the individual, yet he regards it as the function of the state to raise humanity into perfection without destroying the freedom and the happiness of individuals. He was the advocate of no particular form of government. He had no political ideal, except what climate, race, and other conditions might suggest at the time. Still he held that political power should always remain in possession of the best citizens of a country. His preference, however, seems to have been in favor of a constitutional monarchy and aristocracy combined. His maxim in politics, viz., That state is the best in which the virtue, whether of one or of many, governs, has rarely been questioned since his time.

It is not for me to apply the philosophy of Aristotle to any teacher's work except my own; yet I am certain that all teachers, not excluding those of elementary schools, can study with advantage the writings of this last of the great trinity of thinkers and teachers that Greece gave to the world. Stoicism and Epicureanism were schools of philosophy that were developed after the death of Aristotle. From the former we obtain an exalted notion of virtue and the idea of cosmopolitanism. From the latter, a higher conception of pleasure as the basis of human happiness.

I have in this brief and imperfect outline of Greek philosophy endeavored to show that in modern education all is not new which is called new; that there are rich mines of pedagogical treasure that you may possess; and that in the history of philosophy there are thoughts of inestimable value even for teachers of elementary schools.

NORMAL TRAINING FOR TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

KATE N. T. TUPPER, PORTLAND, OREGON.

I have been asked in presenting this subject to touch on the following points:

First, the necessity of training for teachers.

Second, the especial importance of elementary instruction, and the consequent necessity of the training of elementary teachers.

Third, what this training should include.

Fourth, result of such training.

This I have endeavored to do, touching briefly of necessity on some divisions of the subject, and emphasizing others.

It argues ill for the professional claims of teachers that the question is still debated, whether or not training for their work is either necessary or advisable. A large majority of teachers have never received any special training for the work, and therefore consider such training valueless. Experience having been their guide and having led them to find heights of success, they argue, prompted by this same experience, that she is the best and only trustworthy guide. Were it not for the opposition of teachers themselves to normal training, our profession would have made a greater record of progress in the past decade than will be possible for it in the decade to come. What can such training do for the teacher? Quite as much as can either the law or medical schools for their professions. What does a graduate of the normal school know of teaching? What does the graduate of the law school know of the practice of law, or the medical student of the practice of medicine? Either will find much more of his profession unlearned than will the trained teacher. All training schools are but preparatory to actual work, and every teacher must pay for the dear tuition of experience, but only prejudice or ignorance can calmly advise that this preparatory training be therefore omitted. When teachers look back on the poor broken blossoms that their ruthless feet have crushed in the unguided ascent to the heights they have gained, and view their own torn garments and discarded footgear, we can hardly understand why they refuse to advise other climbers to find the trail, if possible, before beginning the ascent. The special need for training manifests itself in the elementary schools. In the secondary and higher schools the demand which the pupil makes of the teacher is, primarily, knowledge of the particular subject; and, secondarily, the ability to impart it. In the elementary schools the primary demand is ability to impart knowledge; the secondary, knowledge to impart. In other words, in advanced schools mathematics or chemistry is the science professed, while in the elementary schools teaching is the science professed; the

former deal with trained minds, the latter with untrained. The trained mind seeks knowledge, the untrained mind seeks power to acquire knowledge; and so the geniuses of our profession have been, not the great students of particular branches, but the great students of childhood. For a teacher as such encounters difficulties with the untrained mind, and it is in the overcoming of these difficulties that we have had our great masters, a Froebel or a Dr. Arnold. So also is it that, for the meeting of these difficulties, they who are not geniuses must have their training. We often hear it argued against this training, that the individuality of teachers is cramped by so much system and formulation. We might reply that a teacher who finds no opportunity for the exercise of originality in any branch of our school-work has no originality to exercise, and would be helpless indeed were she required to solve unaided the great educational problem whose solution has absorbed the attention and taxed the energies of genius. But originality is rare at best. That generation is fortunate which leaves the world richer by a single thought. But where great thinking is possible for the few, great execution is possible for the many. A Phidias conceives a Parthenon, but a hundred workmen with skillful hands chisel the pediment, while he designs the frieze; a school-girl may copy one of the old masters; a plaster of Paris cast of Michael Angelo's Moses may have every curve of the majestic original; and a bright, sweet-voiced young woman, who could never have composed a quatrain or a stave, designed a play or invented an occupation, may, when trained, give a roomful of children a happier half-day than was ever enjoyed with Froebel. Another may guide the little ones on the royal Rickoff road to mathematics or the phonetic short-line to reading, as well as they who constructed those marvelous highways. Who would not prefer even a black-and-white copy of one of the creations of the masters to a gorgeous color-piece of an original daubster? It is a narrow spirit which refuses to profit by the genius or experience of others. You or I can use a telephone as well as Professor Bell, although either might be puzzled to make one. The public-school system is as full of labor and time-saving contrivances as that marvel of ingenious mechanism, the steam cylinder printing-press, and it is the growth of more centuries. Just as the mediocre workman may with its help execute wonders, so may we of little originality show finished and beautiful work by the aid of our much-abused "machine."

Our elementary schools have an importance aside from the fact that all advanced education depends upon them, in that a large majority of the young of the land never go beyond them, and must receive in them all the training and stimulus for right-thinking that their lives will possess. In this grave responsibility we find a grave necessity for a special preparation for the work, emphasized by two facts: First, that a large majority of teachers receive their experience in the elementary schools; and second, that a large majority of these leave the schools before they have learned their needs by experience. The most important work our profession is called upon to un-

dertake is, therefore, largely in the hands of those who are not fitted either by experience or previous training for the work. There, where the gravest educational problems are met, there, where the work demands skilled labor, we find the unskilled and the itinerant. All that has ever been said regarding the importance of training for teachers applies with fullest force to the elementary schools. They can never attain real excellence until the annual recruits, amounting, it is estimated, to 25 per cent. of the entire teaching force, are fitted for their responsibilities by preparatory training.

We now approach the much-mooted question, What should such training include? The most of us would unhesitatingly answer, the four orthodox pedagogical branches—psychology, physiology, logic, and ethics, with only so much academic instruction as is absolutely necessary. These, combined with methods of presentation of the common-school branches, taught both theoretically and practically, would constitute an ideal course of study; but such a course presupposes a condition of affairs not common in this country, and the best interests of the schools are subserved when, after a careful study of the social, educational and economic conditions, that course is adopted which meets the wants of the greatest number. Accuracy and clearness of knowledge is the foundation of all pedagogic excellence, and our ideal course of study would be well-nigh worthless in communities—and they are many—where the recruits for the teachers' ranks are destitute of mental discipline and ignorant of the rudiments of a common-school education. In such communities the strength of the training force has, of necessity, gone to instruction in branches to be taught, rather than to distinctive pedagogical training. The normal schools, under this necessity, have become our finest academies, rather than distinctive professional schools.

It is as if the medical colleges were to devote themselves to anatomy, and leave therapeutics to be acquired by the student from experience. The reputation of normal schools has suffered much from the confused character of the work done in them, and will be relieved of much opprobrium when the professional work is clearly differentiated. Few who have never been in normal schools realize the difficulties which they meet in the character of the raw material presented for training, in the broken attendance enforced upon students by pecuniary needs, and in the low ideal of the requirements necessary to constitute a teacher. The wonder is, not that normal schools have as yet accomplished so little, but that, in spite of the indifference of the general public; in spite of the apathy of the profession, and the determined opposition and contempt of the higher institutions of learning, they have accomplished so much for the elementary schools. This is due more largely than we may suppose to the enlarged views of education, the exalted ideals of devotion to the work, the awakened conscience and the ambition to excel which stimulate these young lives to exertion before unknown. To this inspiration, rather than to the amount of work possible of accomplishment in the limited time the students come under the influence of the

schools, is due whatever of success they have attained. It is along this line of inspirational work that our greatest success in training will be achieved, or our greatest failures occur. The element which characterizes the true teacher is as elusive of analysis as the fragrance of a flower; but there are certain characteristics which may be imparted by the inspired worker which will richly aid in its development. First, a belief in the sacredness of the calling; second, a devotion to the work; third, a patience with its drudgery; and fourth, an intelligent conception of the whole, which shall exalt the small part which the one must do. These, I have said, may be imparted by the inspired worker, who is nowhere more needed than where his influence will permeate the hearts and lives of those whose mission it is to influence other hearts and lives to the perfect unfolding of character. So powerful is belief to affect life, that we have little more to do to test a teacher's force than to learn her estimate of the work in which she is engaged. Devotion to it comes of the belief in its sacredness, and in the developed conscience which keeps the whole man—refreshed or fatigued, enthusiastic or apathetic—at the duty which lies nearest him, from cheery morn to weary eve. No one on earth more needs training in truth to the small fidelities than she whose life is made up of the constant doing of the trifles which constitute the work of the elementary schools. Many teachers can see in their work little but drudgery; over and over again, through the weary days of each term, the tasks approach in regular routine—writing, reading, and arithmetic; spelling, geography, and language; and term follows term as day follows day.

The poor creature of the treadmill has one advantage, in that he can be impatient without stopping the wheel. He can put his foot down hard to relieve the nervous strain and his work is accelerated, not retarded or ruined by the act. Well, what about it? Shall the young life meet these monotonous years despairingly, or shall each learn with Gannett to sing a hallelujah to drudgery? Our profession contains a larger per cent. than any other of people whose lives are a disappointment. It is the ambition of few men to teach. A major part of the number who have embraced the calling have never chosen it, but have dropped into it by mere accident, or forced to adopt it by duty to family or grave pecuniary need. The history of women who have been long in the work opens sad pages of grief, loss, or tragedy. Stern necessity has bound them to uncongenial tasks, and life to many of them seems but disappointment or bitterness. The gray creeps into the hair, the stoop into the shoulders, the pain into the voice, and the years bring no change and no relief. On, on, to the dreary end! Pluck keeps the brave lips silent and the brave eyes dry, but those who have sympathy for their helper can read the pathetic tale without the aid of groan or tear. The ideal has been set aside and life has settled itself to the actual. Now Mr. Gannett would have us see in this actual, in this drudgery not to be escaped, the culture of the prime elements of life. He shows us that the fundamentals that underlie all fineness, all success, power of attention, power of in-

dustry, promptitude in beginning work, method and accuracy, and dispatch in doing work, perseverance, courage before difficulties, cheer under straining burdens, self-control, self-denial and temperance, are all developed by this doing one thing over and over again. They are the indispensables of character. They make one's steadfast strength, one's active momentum. They are the solid substance of one's self. We get them, he says, somewhat as the fields and valleys get their grace. Whence is it that the lines of river and meadow and hill and lake and shore conspire to-day to make the landscape beautiful? Only by long chiselings, and steady pressure. Only by ages of glacier-crush and grind, by scouring of floods, by centuries of storm and sun. These rounded the hills and scooped the valley-curves and mellowed the soil for meadow-grace. There was little grace in the operation, had we been there to watch. It was drudgery all over the land. Mother Nature was down on her knees doing her early scrubbing-work. That was yesterday: to-day, as result of scrubbing-work, the laughing landscape. Now he shows us that what is true of the earth is true of every man and woman on the earth; that although our ancestors may bequeath the elements to us, that which scrubs them into us and makes them actually ours, depends upon our own plodding in the rut, our drill of habit. It is the daily task that gives that culture, compared with which all other is mere luxury. Drudgery is the doing of one thing, one thing, one thing, long after it ceases to be amusing; and it is this one thing we do that gathers us together from chaos and concentrates us from possibilities to powers. He gives us the cheering assurance that we may all become artists in our daily task. He shows us that which will make us artists, not artisans. Failing to realize our ideal, we may idealize our real. How? By trying to be perfect in it. It is the angel aim and standard in an act that concentrates it. The smallest roadside pool has its waters from heaven and its gleam from the sun, and can hold the stars in its bosom as well as the great ocean. Even so the humblest man or woman can live splendidly. So let us shape our lives to the new gospel of hard work, and let us give the lives of young workers its sweetness and strength, and let us, with this inspired man, sing a hallelujah and make a fresh beatitude to drudgery. Blessed be drudgery! It is the one thing we cannot spare.

I now reach the fourth characteristic—a clear conception of the relation of the part to the whole. In the painting of great cycloramas, hundreds of artists are at work—some on horses, some on the riders, some on the implements of war, and still others on the landscape. The work of the many is kept in proper relation, and the unity and harmony of the whole are preserved by the far-off look of each artist in turn. Have you ever been in a large congregation, when they were singing, and noted the harsh voices and discord around you? Have you ever moved away from this congregation, and found the harshness softened and the discord lost, until there remained nothing but a grand harmony of sound? The teacher must be trained to

the value of the far-off look, and taught to find the harmony that distance lends to discord. Another question for the normal trainers to meet is, how to effect the general culture of teachers. There is little doubt of the tendency of the work toward narrowness of intellectual outlook. Whether or not this tendency is unavoidable, and its effects eradicable, is a question for normal schools to determine. There is little culture in the common-school branches. The teacher who meets the intellectual wants of children will become herself a child, unless there be some strong counteracting influence at work. The labor of the day is such as to exhaust the powers of concentration, and unfit the mind for serious, forceful thought. There is no attitude of mind more taxing than that habitually employed by the teacher. As much attention is required to correct errors in long division as in quadratics, and its exercise is as exhausting. Then, too, no intellectual atmosphere is more deadly than that vitiated by oft-repeated errors. As an illustration of my meaning, let me call your attention to the simple matter of spelling. We know that a good memory of form makes a good speller. Now let a teacher correct fifty lists of fifty words each; let her see the same word misspelled in ten of the fifty lists; her own pen will halt when next she wishes to write that word. I think all teachers have experienced this gradual undermining of accuracy of knowledge in the school-room. Familiarity with error breeds error. Any teacher having mimetic powers may consider herself fortunate if the syntactical errors against which she has waged war to the death in her school do not disfigure her own speech. In her unguarded moments, when attention is given entirely to the thought she wishes to express rather than to the form of expression, she outleaps this abhorred error with diabolical glee, giving the poor victim a sword-thrust in her most vulnerable part. The poor teacher, who is expected to know everything, unless she guard herself most carefully will find that she knows nothing at the end of a long term of service, and will feel self-respect slipping away from her beyond recall. As an offset to this deteriorating tendency I would have the young teacher warned of it, and urged to vigilant self-tests and frequent drills in accuracy; and as a preservation of self-respect and self-trust, so essential to proper dignity and self-poise, the cultivation of the superior excellence of any peculiar aptitude or talent she may possess. To go farther such culture can be given a social impulse the better. Clubs and classes for study are herein much to be preferred to private plodding. In addition to the incentive for good work that such organizations afford, they offer the opportunity for self-measurement so wholesome for one whose life is spent with less-developed minds, and a vigorous corrective of the dictatorial, self-assertive, pedantic mannerisms which so offensively characterize the narrow members of our profession. Teachers should be urged to inhale with every day's advent, fresh mental breaths, which are as essential to mental health as the long draughts of heaven's pure air are to the physical. A woman, to be truly the angel of the house, must have kept and oftentimes

used the wings that will lift her above the house and all things in it; and she who would be a ministering spirit in the school-room must often rise into the calm heights of light, and refreshment, and repose.

Our profession suffers all along the line because of the limited intellectual outlook of its members. The four walls of the school-room mark the horizon of the vast majority of our so-called earnest workers; and the pity of it all is that this narrowness is lauded as virtue, is praised as devotion to the work, is proclaimed the ideal of duty-doing. When to be more of a teacher demands to be less of a woman, it is time to cry halt and prepare for defense, for an enemy of childhood advances. What childhood needs for its full development is contact with fully-developed womanhood. This is God's law. We have all known mothers whose time and strength were so given to the preparation of food, to the care of the family wardrobe, and to the cleanliness and order of the household, that all thought of self was lost, and mind, heart and body were weakened, shriveled and dwarfed until nothing but a caricature or a pitiable distortion remained of fully-developed womanhood. The self-surrender was complete, and the sacrifice heroic; but it was a suicidal self-surrender, and a mistaken sacrifice. Press and pulpit have rung with protests and exhortations in the hope of rousing womanhood from the lower mission of housekeeping to the higher mission of home-making, from the lower of providing bodily comfort to the higher of providing heart-comfort; and mothers are learning to choose between many puckers in the gown with accompanying puckers in the brow, and no puckers in the gown with no puckers in the brow. The true teacher's measure is the true mother's measure: not the painful pursuance to senseless nicety of the petty details of child-care, but steady nerve and measureless sympathy, and strong, wise thought, uninfluenced by weak feeling, to distinguish essentials from non-essentials. She is marked by the calm eye which sees things in their true relation, not by the nervous vision producing monsters in dark corners and menace in moving shadows. Away with the short-sighted policy of school supervision that levies exaction upon exaction until over-strained nerve-force reels and mind and body alike yield. Away with the weak spirit which calls submission duty-doing and devotion, and protests not at the wicked waste of life-force that is going on in nearly every school of our land. New ideals are needed in this regard. A wise conservation of energy must precede a liberal expenditure of energy, and apostles of this wise conservation are vitally needed wherever their influence will affect the profession. She who saves herself that she may wisely give herself is the most generous, for it is she who can give full measure of service, "pressed down and running over," when the true time of giving comes. Another thing I would have a teacher trained toward is a generous, enthusiastic professional spirit. I would have her eager to share the success she attains with other workers for sweet childhood's sake, and I would give her the power to thus share her valuable acquisitions of experience, by giving her most careful

training in the use of speech and pen. It is rare to find in our profession a woman who can, without great pain to herself and almost equal pain to those around her, express before an assembly of people her views on a subject of which she may be master. Thus annual national, and semi-annual state gatherings, to say nothing of the monthly or more frequent local assemblies, lose much possible benefit. A large proportion of the teachers of the United States are women; of these capable, earnest, intelligent workers who are bearing the burden and heat of the work in our schools, ninety-nine out of one hundred have their lips of public utterance sealed, either by timidity, by a self-depreciation—which is a deadly form of egoism—or by false ideas of what is becoming to womanhood. What can be done about it? Little, perhaps, with the present generation of teachers; much with the next, if those who have them in training use proper means to develop the power. Something even can be done with our own generation, if supervisors and directors of work will make an effort in this direction. If women were encouraged to express their own ideas on educational matters, as much as they are now urged to attentive listening and reading, there would be a mighty impulse all along the line. I have never attended a great assembly of teachers without gaining more from the private reviews of addresses and papers given by clear-headed, common-sense women than I have gained from the papers and addresses themselves; and I have never had this experience without feeling how much inspiration and enthusiasm the profession would gain, could these private criticisms be given publicly, as they should be. Women have courage when they feel the need of its exercise, and should be shown their duty here; but above all, young teachers should be trained in natural, forceful public utterance, for the sake of the public good. Not only would the profession gain in public estimation by it and in unity of spirit, but the gain to the individuals given this training would be great. I know of no capability which gives more power than this. Its influence is great whenever felt. It will carry force into every school-room its possessor enters, and the feeling of self-mastery and confidence given will assure success in school management in the most trying emergencies. It is a mistake to suppose that self-confidence is egotism; there is more of self in shyness than in confidence.

The ratio of teachers trained to teachers employed is largest in Massachusetts, where it is between fifty and sixty to one hundred. Ten states train above ten, and numerous states train less than one to one hundred the number employed. These ratios show that for some time to come the chief normal work of the country will be in the hands of supervisors of schools. In all communities there is a great pressure brought to bear on directors for the employment of young women who are residents of the community, and this emphasizes the necessity of principals and superintendents doing normal training. I know that many shirk this responsibility, but responsibilities are not less because they are shirked. The best trainer

teachers I have ever known was a superintendent of schools in a town of seven thousand inhabitants, whose grade meetings were made not only opportunities for the discussion of every phase of the work of the grade, but for talks, papers, and readings on the broadest pedagogical themes. It was not possible to teach under him without becoming a student of teaching. The work of each teacher was measured by that of every other in her grade, and that of the whole compared as far as possible with work in other schools. Each teacher knew not only wherein her work differed from that of the leading schools of the country, but why it differed. Teachers from that school have found their way into the faculties of nearly all the leading normal schools of the middle West, and the superintendent is still in his place, training other teachers when those he has trained are taken from him. Much that I have said in this paper with regard to normal training has had reference to this kind of work. There is too much of a tendency on the part of school supervisors to assume the attitude of detectives rather than that of advisers, and to throw all the responsibility of failure upon teachers. Schools cannot afford failures. Too grave consequences follow in their wake. If trained teachers cannot be secured, then teachers must be trained. "These scholars can't read," said a teacher to a supervisor; "they don't know the words." "Has it not occurred to you to teach them the words?" replied the supervisor. And then and there followed a private lesson on methods in reading which aroused the dormant faculties of a sleeping genius. If supervisors allow failure without earnest efforts to convert failure into success, we must lay it at their own door.

I have not dwelt on how these things are to be accomplished, for the aim is the vital matter. You know when a farmer wants to plow a straight furrow, he puts up a small white flag on the opposite side of the field, and keeps his eye upon it. Unconsciously the man's whole body fits itself to the perfecting of the task, and the furrow lies true and straight behind him. If he keep his eye on the plow, on the ground, or even his horses' ears, the crooked furrow will show him his mistake. The white flag on the stick at the very end has shaped the task. Get your aim in work first of all, and be true to it; your hands must still hold the plow, your back will ache no less at the end of the field, but a straight furrow will reward your toil.

DISCUSSION.

W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

I desire to express to the President, and members of the Elementary Department, my grateful thanks for this privilege of saying a few parting words. I am filled with regret that I was not present at the proper time,

but I assure you that circumstances over which I had no control detained me.

I am called upon to discuss the excellent paper of Miss Tupper, but before offering any remarks upon it I hope that you will indulge me some suggestions upon the work of this Department, last session, at Chicago.

I would invite a critical reading of all the papers read before the Department at that time, because living issues are discussed therein in a masterly manner. The positions assumed and the arguments submitted by the writers of the respective papers are such as will enlighten the mind, and lead it to correct conclusions.

I think that you will find that those of Dr. Nathan C. Schaefer and Dr. Allyn are exceedingly valuable. The former handles his subject with skill and fairness, and develops the *true educational value* of the maxim, "We learn to do by doing"; the latter safely reaches the *authoritative basis* of all moral training. These are brave words of Dr. Allyn: "I have no patience with any literature or science which depersonates the Most High God, and represents Him by that driveling, indefinite epithet and expletive—it!"

Miss Tupper presents, in a very logical and attractive manner, *four* points:

1. The necessity of normal training.
2. The importance of the proper training of elementary teachers.
3. What such training should include.
4. The result of such training.

Miss Tupper, if I remember, in summing up what the teacher should be, uses a word which is suggestive of inexhaustible tenderness and love in managing children. That word is motherhood. The writer is very fortunate in her selection of the word, for it expresses that unselfish devotion to duty which the teacher owes to the disobedient as well as the obedient. It is also indicative of that unfailing source of spiritual power—love—the love which "seeketh not her own," "is not easily provoked," and "never faileth." It is love which leads the mother to *suffer*, to *watch*, and to *care* for the erring child. No care is too heavy when sustained by love. The teacher who is inspired by this holy fire is "more precious than rubies, *and* all the things thou canst desire are not to be compared unto her."

In conclusion, Mr. President, we should realize the fact that our work fundamental, and for this reason it should be done *thoughtfully, masterfully* and *lovingly*.

May the blessing of God ever be with you all. My parting words *are* Be true to God, to your country, and to your schools.

THE APPLICATION OF ARITHMETIC TO PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

WALTER M'NAB MILLER, RENO, NEVADA.

You may wonder, fellow-teachers, what the subject, *The Application of Arithmetic to Physical Science*, has to do with the work of the Department of Elementary Instruction of the National Educational Association; but you must not forget that "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."

Our business is in the beginning to train the minds of the young, and furnish them with such knowledge that they may successfully adjust themselves to the conditions which shall exist in the time of their maturer years. Our occupation needs no defensive argument. To you who are skeptical, need only be mentioned that in your short journey westward and ere our return, believe me, you will have learned the true value of a good beginning and a rich furnishing.

Science is well-ordered knowledge, and has not only to do with astronomy, biology, chemistry, and the like. We forget that all well-ordered work is science. Its spirit—method that is characterized by completeness and exactness—is slowly and surely finding its way into the hearts of our nation's people.

At present it is the fashion to relegate school-work in science to high-school and college courses, we forgetting that it has equally to do with the trades and professions. But here, too, it is slowly and surely finding its deserved position, unnoticed in its progress as the boy grows into youth and from youth to manhood.

It is our duty, then, to train and furnish the minds of our boys and girls not only for work in science in the high school and university, but also to prepare them for the methodical work which, would they survive, they will be called upon to do in the day that shall come.

In the framing of a curriculum, studies must be made to follow in logical and psychological sequence. Science weighs, measures, compares; arithmetic computes.

In the development of the young mind, science and arithmetic naturally sit upon each other, are successively dependent, now the one and then the other giving the impulse to progression, much as one foot and then the other, each dependent, propels the body in locomotion.

Is it not then our duty, as teachers in primary schools, to fit our pupils for the work that shall come? Few people, indeed, can compute with accuracy and rapidity. It is the experience of all teachers of physical science to find their pupils lacking in this very important respect. In the high school and in the university the same complaint is made, and in the pub-

lished works of the scientists of this and other decades, inaccuracy of arithmetic is found associated with the very highest scientific attainments. The world's greatest mathematicians have complained of this lack of facility in performing the simplest arithmetical computations. The simple computations of the workshop and laboratory prove bugbears to those that make them, and who of us does not hesitate in determining the amount of change he shall receive after making a few simple purchases? Eminent teachers of mathematics quail before seven times seven and a half less three, and yet learnedly discourse for hours on the methods of teaching geometrical conics.

The fault is our own. Too much of our time and too many pages of our texts are devoted to subjects that have little practical value. Pupils are pushed too rapidly in the subject, and before they have mastered the fundamental processes they are engaged in the complicated work of partial payments and the extraction of the roots of numbers. They are made to deal too little with quantities and too much with imaginary problems. Too often they are buried in a multitude of heterogeneously arranged concrete problems, out of which they escape in a condition much like that of a man who should escape from a shower of frogs, novels, and cattle-cars.

Have we not gone a step too far in giving concrete problems? Should we discard the committing to memory of the multiplication table? Is it not better to refer mentally to the methodically tabulated figures on the page of the text, than to be forever multiplying apples and boys?

We must come back to the legitimate use of concrete examples, that of illustrating the use of the fixed, unvarying tables. Is not the table a thing? May it not also be studied and known? Must all tables be discarded? And must we forever raise, kill, and prepare the meat that we eat? Are the results of the labor of no man to be used? Is no authority to be respected? Pupils by long drill should be made to know the tables and their applications before studying fractions, and again they should be truly proficient in the operations involving fractions before undertaking the numerous cases of the application of percentage. They should be given much mental work to do, and only by many, many repetitions, will the subject be completely mastered. Absolute thoroughness in the subjects, and not a grade indicated by seventy per cent., should permit their passing to higher work. Let us sacrifice our system of graded schools, if we must, to attain this end, rather than positively to injure those whom we would benefit. He that is well founded in the simple fundamental arithmetical processes will be always accurate, and will find that what remains is easily acquired.

With this much done, half the battle is fought, and the pupil is prepared for training in rapidity in work. He should be taught the short methods of computation, the use of the complement and the reciprocal, the use of tables, and methods of interpolation. The algebraic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, processes which admit of universal application, should be taught him.

Too much of our time and attention is given to dollars and cents, and too little to the general relationship of numbers. Too little work is done in teaching ratio, proportion, and variation, and too much in the teaching of their particular applications. For example, all the cases of percentage and its application resolve themselves into simple problems in proportion. It is the particular need of those engaged in scientific work that they be well grounded in the use of decimals, and the relationship of units. The study of the metric system of measures and weights must not be slighted by him who will spend his life in the American counting-house. The study of the centimetre-gramme-and-second system of fundamental units should not go unnoticed. Must the boy that shall become a university student be slighted more than he that will dole out sugar by the pound, or diamonds by the carat?

And now, finally, here is the burden of my song. To prepare our boys and girls for work in science; to prepare them for the day that shall come; to prepare them to meet the demands of to-day, we must make the application of arithmetic to science in our schools. It is the old story that will be told again and again. Some science must be brought into the primary work of our common schools. Pupils must be made to deal with things, with quantities. This work must be experimental, exact, quantitative. The air-pump and Holtz machine are not required in the work, nor are loud reports and astonishing play of colors a necessary effect to be brought about. Better is it to use inexpensive or improvised apparatus, the results of the workings of which shall admit of numerical representation. It is only in this kind of work, when such results are obtained, that the method of science is truly given.

The study of physics can present us numerous subjects that will admit of this adaptation to our work. As examples, we may use thermometers of different scales—Fahrenheit and Celsius—to make comparisons of readings under a variety of circumstances; we may use spring-balances, strings and weights to systematically study the composition of forces; we may use bullets and thread to determine the laws for the vibration of pendulums; we may use a flexible stick, some bits of wire, some tacks, the lid of a blacking-box, a bottle and a graduated straight-edge to determine the specific gravity of solids and liquids.

Such subjects as have been given here as examples are now finding their way into the modern text-book on arithmetic. A Boston publishing house has recently brought out a book in which is found treated the application of arithmetic in the determination of specific gravity, and in the comparisons of thermometric readings. Other houses will doubtless follow in its footsteps.

By thus introducing science into the courses of study of our primary schools, we are at once furnished with convenient and inexpensive material for actually illustrating the work. And aside from the advantages already men-

tioned, there still remains to be gained the great good which comes with the study of science. This good is the love of truth. To the man of science truth is the only goal. He will leave friends and honor in the search of it. For it, he will cast aside his life's work and the religion of his fathers. He will give hope and life in its defense.

SCIENTIFIC METHODS IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

CORWIN F. PALMER, DRESDEN, OHIO.

Geography is the last of the sciences to which scientific methods of investigation have been applied. This is not because its phenomena were not accessible or its study lacking in interest, for the case was quite the contrary. But geographical facts are the long results of time and are distributed worldwide, and even yet the observations have not extended through a period sufficiently long, and its generalizations are still too meager to furnish more than an outline for the science. But the devotion of our men of learning, and our improved methods of investigation, backed by the substantial encouragement of the great commercial nations, are doing much to increase our fund of knowledge on this subject.

Previous to Humboldt and Ritter, in the early part of this century, the study of geography consisted in memorizing a heterogeneous mass of detail without any attempt at scientific classification. The whole subject of relations was ignored. If classification was attempted at all, it was on a purely artificial basis. This arose largely from a failure to recognize the organic unity of the earth and its intimate connection with the development of the race.

When the great geographer first conceived of the earth as "seed thrown from the hand of God on the great field of space," and carrying in its own bosom the seeds of the future to germinate and unfold age after age," a new sister was born into the circle of sciences. The apparently aimless distribution of land and water over the earth's surface was no longer to be regarded as mere chance-work. For

"All are but parts of one stupendous whole,
Whose body nature is, and God the soul."

But the earth was not to be looked upon as a passive agent, but an active potent factor in the great scheme of creative intelligence. The study of structural geography thus becomes a study of final causes. "The animate creation, plants, animals, man, come and go in accordance with the laws of their being, and as subordinate dependents on the great forces which the earth holds locked up within her bosom." Says President Porter: "This

science, as conceived and perfected by Ritter, takes the earth where geology leaves it, and shows how each continent and country was fitted for the part which it has played in the world's history by its structure, surface, soil, and climate; by its mountain barriers to repel, and its coasts and harbors to invite; by its river systems to bind remoter portions, and its insular situation to facilitate defense. It shows that every part of the earth was not only adapted from the first to receive and develop the race which was allotted to it, and to become the scene of events which have made it memorable, but to transmit the results of these achievements to neighboring countries and other races, and even to transfer them to remote parts of the earth and a later and better civilization. By referring intellectual and moral influences to favoring physical conditions, it enables us to find an adaptation to important moral results even in the physical arrangements of the earth." Man thus becomes the central point around which all geographical knowledge revolves. The earth is accordingly to be viewed as a place designed to train man to perform the part allotted him by destiny, and as such is the home of mind, of soul, of character. This conception of a great plan and a purpose worked out through the varying forms of the earth, involves the necessary notion of a divine planner as the antecedent term of relation. The study of geography, then, with man as the central figure, reaches from the meanest things of earth to the divinity on high; upward to the throne of Omnipotence, downward to the rippling rill.

As a science, geography becomes also a field for speculation, and the necessary result has followed that much error has crept in; a result which always follows from attempting to comprehend the plan of Omnipotence upon a basis of comparatively few data.

The first thing, then, for the teacher to do, is to convince himself by careful and thoughtful study that there is a real science of geography, for faults in teaching are not so much due to wrong conceptions of the subject as to no conceptions. When the teacher once brings himself to recognize the connection between related facts of geography, and has learned to carry out to their ultimate results the ever-changing phenomena of the earth, he has reached a vantage-ground of professional skill that will enable him to enter into the spirit of his work himself, and he will not fail to arouse that enthusiasm in the minds of his pupils so essential to a full measure of success.

Between the teacher and the taught there should be that abounding sympathy which characterizes earnest seekers after truth. To this end, the teacher must himself be a learner, only a little more advanced. He must also be a person of vivid imagination, and able to call up images in the minds of his pupils, for upon the exercise of these powers success in this branch very largely depends. He must not only have the ingenuity—the mechanical aptitude—necessary to the proper use of apparatus, but he must be able to improvise much. He must be one fertile of expedients. He must have traveled some, though perhaps not out of his own state, or section, if

only with the eye and the ear awake to impressions, and a mind on the alert for the causes of things.

As geography is preëminently an outdoor study, the teacher of it must be an earnest student of nature, with that comprehensiveness of mental grasp that will take in at one sweep a multitude of related ideas. To this, books are but aids, and must be kept subordinate. Before Ritter's time, the teachers of Europe were slaves to the text-book. He initiated methods of original investigation, observation, classification, and topical methods of study. Guyot, his great pupil, did for America what Ritter did for Germany.

It is whispered about, out in Ohio, that there be some teachers who are still in the Rip Van Winkle sleep, or, having just been aroused from their lethargy, do not yet know that a revolution in ideas has taken place, and with their rusty flint-locks are still shooting the young idea. However this may be, I fear that in this branch of school-work, the best methods require too much preparation, too comprehensive a knowledge of the subject, too much every-day work, too much ingenuity, to recommend them to the average teacher.

The great difficulty at the outset in this study is the enormous magnitude of the objects to be considered—the inability of the child to mentally grasp conceptions of such vastness and varied form. And yet our geography and our geography-teaching are often fashioned on the idea that the great round ball, a-swinging in the air and twenty-five thousand miles in circumference, is an easy concept for a young child whose earthly pilgrimages have perhaps not extended farther than the school-house, the rural church, or the sleepy post-village a few miles away. And so the big regulation ball plumped at him without a moment's warning. No wonder that he is so badly stunned that he seldom recovers consciousness during the rest of the game. No lesson should be required of young pupils until they have had a preliminary drill over its whole subject. This oral instruction is seemingly prodigal of time, but it is economy in the outcome. The pupil must first become interested in the physical features about him. He is then ready to appreciate those at a distance. The bugbears of the book disappear when viewed through the medium of the school-yard or the outlying country over which he has scampered and fished and hunted nuts. It will be found easier to interest children in physical than in political features. This is the logical order and it is the one that excites the keenest relish in the child's mind. Geography is not dry. If pupils are not interested it is because the text-book, or most likely both, are dry. For, it has been aptly asked, what dryness in a science except the absence of those principles, of those ideas by which well-constituted minds are nurtured? When we consider the fault of preparation and absence of method that characterize far too much of our teaching, what wonder that this most delightful of the sciences is an object of dislike to most American boys and girls. At the other extreme, doubt

less, the subject may be taught to bright children in too wearisome detail in the name of system. The subject is too much diluted to develop ruggedness of character. As it is often pursued it takes too much time, a complaint often heard; and yet, with proper methods it should occupy some portion of the child's time from his first entrance into school, and in some form or other should continue side by side with other studies until the last day in the university.

The training of the observing powers is the first work with the young child. He should be taught to interpret nature as he sees it spread out before him. For this work no book is necessary. Some attempts have been made to prepare books for this part of the work, where no books are needed, and where none can be used. Nothing can take the place of the living teacher; and where this is lacking, lesson-hearing from a text-book is but mockery. In fact, those who prepare the books that are in use in primary schools very generally lose sight of the fact that the eye is the avenue through which most of our knowledge of geographical facts is obtained. The observing powers must first be brought into requisition to furnish the necessary sense-products. Thus thought is aroused, and the yawning chasm between books and things is bridged, an abyss into which so many teachers and pupils tumble headlong in their early career, never to be heard of more in the realms of learning. With the sense-products thus obtained as raw material, the learner is prepared to go on to construct the great primary concepts of the science—continents, continental slopes, and land and water divisions.

Thus geography furnishes an admirable opportunity for training the imaginative faculties. The teacher in his talks with his pupils about the surrounding country, and subsequently about that at a greater distance, is continually calling into play their powers of imagination. The known facts are, under the skillful management of the teacher, built up into new creations, new pictures of absorbing interest in the mind of the child. But the image must first be clear in the mind of the teacher, and then she must be an adept in seeking out the material for the new structure. Herein consists the true teacher's power. Here is demanded that searching knowledge of child-nature and child-acquirements, that intimacy with the whole little world of the young mind, that makes it as clay in the potter's hands. In no subject in the common-school curriculum is such an opportunity given for harnessing this errant steed of the mind, and making it do good service for its possessor, and rescuing it from being that fleeting, ethereal, dreamy thing, fit, according to the hard realistic mind, only for poets and artists. The teacher must know that the imagination is your true bread-and-butter faculty, and that geography is a rich field for its culture. Carefully should the language be graded, carefully the steps be taken. No place for meaningless terms here; no place for a jargon of mixed-up stuff which only confuses and blinds and dulls and kills. From the known and near to the

unknown and distant, is the order. Imaginary journeys connect the distant and vague with the near and distinct, and the realism of the journey whets sharp the imagination.

We do not mean to discourage the memorizing of facts in this branch. On the contrary, we must depend upon memory to furnish us the basis for our investigations. But they must be wisely chosen, and grouped according to some correct principle of arrangement.

We must have maps pictured upon the mind, but these maps must be instinct with life. Superintendent Hinsdale has well said: "To print such a series of maps in the child's mind is by far the larger part of teaching geography in the common school."

The aim of all good school-work is mental discipline — to make the pupils think. To this the most approved methods of instruction make no exception in the case of geography. It furnishes about the only opportunity for science-training below the high school. When we consider the large proportion of pupils who never reach the high school, its importance becomes all the more apparent. The study of geography, like that of all the sciences, should accordingly be made the occasion for exercising the child in reasoning as to the causes of natural phenomena. It is of more consequence to know what made a city populous, than to know its population; to know why a river is long, than to know its length; to know why the brook is not a river, or the pond a lake.

Geography, properly pursued, should accomplish another great purpose of teaching: to create in the mind a desire for future acquisitions. It touches upon all other branches, whether of literature, science, or art, and is the foundation-stone upon which rests the whole superstructure of human knowledge. It should form a background, a chess-board, on which to marshal the ever-changing events of life.

Ruskin, in the first division of his three-fold summary of what is necessary to an educated man, says that he should know "where he is — that is to say, what kind of a world he has got into; how large it is; what kind of creatures live in it, and how; what it is made of, and what may be made of it." Another has so well said, that I cannot do better than to quote his words: "No study of the grammar grades does more to give ability to converse intelligently, to read understandingly, or adds more to the general culture and intelligence of our pupils, than geography. No study does more to broaden and liberalize; none does more to render serviceable the imagination, or cultivate the power of generalization — of combining under a general law a great number of particulars — which is the secret of good memory, and the essential of mental grasp and scope, than does geography rightly taught."

The subject is to be studied in a four-fold relation — to nature, to man, to the universe, and to the Creator.

The first of these relations should occupy the far greater portion of the

time below the high school. The others should claim more and more attention in the order I have given them, as the pupil advances through the grammar school. Many of the conceptions of the last three relations are far too difficult for the beginner, but some are within his easy comprehension and are really necessary to the correct understanding of the first relation; but they should be wisely chosen and introduced only when there is a logical demand for them.

In the study of the earth in its relation to nature, the following order should be observed: First, the surface, then the drainage, and lastly the forms of life. Bring into requisition as many faculties as possible. Proceed from the particular to the general.

As has been said, the first attention of the child should be directed to the manifestations of nature in the vicinity of his home. The simple sense-products which he thus acquires, with a proper use of his imaginative powers, will enable him, by synthesis and induction, to pass on to the conception of a continent.

One of the most useful lessons at this stage is to teach pupils to appreciate differences of size and proportion by actual measurements.

By building the continent, I mean that the teacher should combine the acquired sense-products into a picture of the horizontal and vertical structure of the continent, so that the pupil can travel in imagination all over the structure and mentally see its parts. This picture, at first, is a general one—a bird's-eye view—to be gradually filled up and intensified in details by an after-study of the continents.

The principal object in studying local geography at first, then, is to get these necessary sense-products. In consequence of a misunderstanding as to the true purpose of this study it is carried too far, and entirely beyond the range of observation. This is wrong. The continent is the first geographical unit that claims our attention, and as it is the first in logical sequence, so it is in ease of conception, so soon as the child's observation and imagination have been somewhat exercised on the world about him.

Says Humboldt, "Every little nook and shaded corner is but a reflection of the whole of nature."

The pedagogical rule, begin with the whole and go to the parts, is wrongly applied. Thus many teachers think that the whole must be the great globe itself. The rule should be changed to, begin with any whole that is in the mind and go to the parts. Now there are two kinds of wholes: one is the whole of sense-grasp, the other is the whole of the imagination. Of this latter, as has been said, first in order comes the continent.

In leading the child to grasp the idea of a continent, the tendency is to particularize too soon. It should be looked upon at first as merely a portion of the earth's surface, somewhat more elevated than the rest, and hence appearing above the surface of the waters. Then come the general outline of its form and its surface elevation. This brings us to a consideration

of the primary continental highlands as the points of greatest elevation; then the attention is naturally drawn to those of lesser prominence, the secondary highlands; after which the main directions of continental drainage follow in logical order.

The slope is the unit of relief. Upon it depend the plant and animal life of a country, its commerce, the vocations of its people, and the growth and decay of nations.

The biological side of geography, if studied at all, is too apt to consist in a mere recital of disconnected details in regard to plants and animals, without any reference to surface, drainage and climate, in determining their distribution. The teaching of productions in connection with the artificial divisions of land is unscientific and illogical to the highest degree. The location of the belts and districts of plant and animal distribution should be taught as necessarily resulting from natural conditions previously understood. Artificial facts should only be taught as growing out of and based upon facts of nature.

More large facts should be taught. We should, moreover, teach less the farther we get away from home. And yet so strong a hold has the old slavish method of teaching useless detail got on the profession, that a superintendent of schools in a great city, though joining in the cry, "Too much detail," recommends in his minute instructions to teachers, the teaching of twenty-five cities of South America besides the capitals, making thirty-eight in all, and from fifty to seventy in Europe, with fifteen mountain-chains and twenty important rivers, and other things in proportion — and all this to pupils three years below the high school. And then he crowds all that delightful part of the study, the geography of Humboldt, of Ritter and of Guyot, into the hurly-burly of the last year's already over-crowded course.

The text-book is by far a too-important factor in our school-rooms. The text-book must be subject to the teacher, and not the teacher to the text-book. John Richard Green, the historian, in "A Short Geography of the British Islands," says: "No drearier task can be set for the worst of criminals than the studying of a set of geographical text-books such as the children in our schools are doomed to use."

The early introduction of text-book geography is largely due to the number of books in the series. School boards and school teachers seem to be governed by the idea that the three or four geographies were made to be used, and the children must hence begin them early so as to give ample time to get through the dreary things. Happily, the tendency now seems to be to reduce the number, and to make some concession in favor of the subject they are supposed to aid in teaching.

No branch of study has as many points of contact with other branches as has geography. When we do not teach related branches together we fail to avail ourselves of one of the most important aids to memory — that of association. An eminent writer has said: "Isolated geography, taught inde-

pendently of other studies, is feeding on the east wind. To learn the geography in advance of the history, or of the commercial, social or scientific relations which render it interesting and important, is to mark on the shifting seas the track where some ship is expected to sail, or stake out in the wilderness the site of some city not yet built." And thus writes Dr. Hinsdale: "To study history apart from geography is as foolish as it is to study the human mind apart from the physical organism."

After the object itself, moulds and models form the best means of illustration. The objections raised by some to the use of relief globes and maps, and moulding-sand and putty, that they impart erroneous and exaggerated ideas of relief, are, it seems to me, more imaginary than real; at any rate, the advantages vastly outweigh the objections.

One great claim for objective representations is, that the image is given entire; they aid to comprehensiveness of grasp. Words, aside from their general ineffectiveness, convey impressions by piecemeal only. Care should be used that the things represented are themselves understood; that the pupil is able to look beyond the model to that which the model represents. In the use of models, care should also be taken that they do not belittle the objects they represent in the mind of the pupil.

Many devices will suggest themselves to the ingenious teacher. Does he want a ready means of drawing the outline of a map on the slate, he has each of his pupils cut out a map pattern. Does he want to draw with facility the meridians and parallels, a flexible strip of wood forms a suitable guide. Does he want to represent to his pupils the earth floating in space, some seductive soap-bubbles are blown to float in miraculous beauty before their admiring gaze. Does he want to impress upon their minds the fact that the terms up and down are relative only, he asks one of his pupils to bring some ants into the school-room, and sets them loose to crawl over a globe. Does he lack relief maps, he procures at little expense a supply of putty, colors it to his taste, and under his direction the pupils supply the deficiency, while at the same time their knowledge and skill are increased.

The value of pictures as a means of imparting distinct geographical ideas is not to be overlooked. Books of travel, and the excellent geographical readers now published, are in this line, and should form an important part of every school library. These, together with the best modern text-books, contain an abundance of good illustrations. But these should be further supplemented with pictures cut from illustrated papers and magazines. It is a good plan for the teacher to make lists of the subjects that can be illustrated by pictures, and set the pupils to making collections at the beginning of the term, so there will be an abundance when the time comes. These should be classified, and may be pasted on manilla paper in the form of charts, or made into scrap-books. Then there are photographs and stereoscopic views, which may now be purchased very cheap by the teacher; or they may be gathered in from the homes of the pupils, to be returned

again after they have been used. Some enterprising teachers treat their pupils and themselves to the luxury of the solar camera and transparencies. But too many, alas, of our earnest workers, being compelled to cut their garments according to the cloth, must rest content with humbler means of illustration.

We now are brought to consider the various means of graphic representation. "Drawing," says Col. Parker, "should be constantly used, from the beginning to the end of all geographical teaching. The aim should not be to draw nice, accurate maps, but to express thought in an accurate way." That is the idea precisely. Map-drawing is only a means. In the first maps it will be sufficient if they aim at a general resemblance of proportion. The great object is to teach the young mind to realize the relations between the actual boundaries and the artificial representations of them. The making of elaborately finished maps may be useful, but not as a means of geography-study. The making of outlines and locating of the more prominent features, tending to comprehensiveness of grasp, is more in the line of profitable work. The more salient features of the map are presented to the mind in their relations of size, direction, and importance, as parts of one organic whole. The skill of the artist is best displayed in the fewness of the lines by which he brings out the characteristics of a face, or the contour of a landscape. So it is with map-drawing. The few lines representing the trend of coasts, the direction of mountain-chains, the course of rivers; the few dots and crosses and curves marking the location of cities, of lakes, of mountain-peaks, give evidence of that mental sweep which is so desirable a result of training in this branch. The details, so far as it is worth while to attend to details, easily attach themselves to this framework, and then their connection with the related whole comes easily.

Says a recent writer: "Maps are not pictures — they are diagrams, abstract representations of the region studied. Obviously there may be grades of abstraction in these representations, greater or less amount of detail and exactness of form. I wish to show my friend where I live. I draw a rough plan which indicates well enough the position of my home, although the measurements may be anything but correct. So the child should not make a detailed copy of the map in his atlas, but should represent the leading features that he has abstracted from it. Since the younger pupils have less trained powers of observation than older ones, since the maps studied in the lower grades should be simpler than those in the higher, it follows that grades exist in map-drawing. The youngest pupils can draw a diagram showing the relative positions of a few localities, the course of two or three rivers, only a simple geometrical figure, the contour of a country. They will thus exercise their self-activity and represent only what they have observed upon the map."

It has been suggested that it would be a good plan to have a series of maps of the same country on the development plan, each giving some one

feature after the manner of physiological charts. An outline map painted on a cloth or a paper blackboard will be found of excellent service in this connection.

The method in vogue among the teachers of Germany, of representing relative position, area, population, vertical and horizontal dimensions, and other geographical magnitudes on graphic scales, is an extension of this idea.

The teacher who has traveled some will be better able to teach geographical ideas, but as this means of culture is denied many of the teachers as well as the taught, a good substitute may be had in imaginary or map journeys. While we do not believe with Tom Hood, that the schoolmistress should never travel except on the map, where to use his words she may skip from a blue continent to a green one, cross a pink isthmus, traverse a red, black, or yellow sea, land in a purple island, or range in an orange desert without danger or indecorum—certainly that would be an unpopular sentiment to utter in this assembly, made up as it is from the whole broad extent of our paternal domain—yet we do believe that the witty Irishman builded better than he knew. In his efforts to poke fun at the ancient dame of his acquaintance he inadvertently stumbled upon one of the most approved aids to geography drill. As a means of review these imaginary journeys by land and sea are of great benefit. The pupil carefully notes the striking features of the landscape, the plants and animals, the character and occupations of the people, cities with their noted buildings, and the objects and places of historic interest. He can also make mention of the goods with which the vessel loads at various points, and also the kinds of merchandise that are being brought into the country. This is an excellent test of the thoroughness of the pupil's work; it trains the imagination, and it also affords admirable themes for composition. Thus I have hurriedly sketched over this vast subject. To none is it more vast in its importance and extent than to Americans and to the American teacher. Patriotic considerations alone are sufficient to compel attention to it. No American boy or girl should be allowed to leave school until he shall have gained a fair knowledge of the vastness of his home-land, its varied resources, and its adaptation for the growth and development of a great people. Shall we, teachers, come we from the busy mill-towns of New England, the orange groves and cotton plantations of the South country, the waving grain-fields of the Mississippi Valley, the ranch-land and mining-camps of the continental divide, or the hospitable Pacific Slope, see to it that the youth of Columbia get out of this science the full complement of American Manhood and Womanhood?

A SHORT AND RATIONAL METHOD OF NUMBER-WORK.

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The Commissioner of Education reported eleven million pupils registered in the school-year of '83-84. The present enrollment would be about twelve millions. Allowing one-quarter of the pupils to be in the first year, of primary and the high school there are nine millions to study arithmetic. It is estimated that one-quarter of the time, in seven grades, is devoted to this study, which gives to the study of arithmetic for each school-year a total of 2,250,000 years, and in the school-life of each pupil about two years.

We have visited schools, from Portland, Maine, to Portland, Oregon, and carefully studied the methods used, and the results. Each year's observation has strengthened our conviction that about one-half of the time given to the study of arithmetic may be saved. Now, if it be true that about one million years of time can be saved in each school-year, and about one year of the school-life of each child, how to do it is worthy of careful consideration.

The usual course of study for the second year is as follows:

- "Teach pupils to read and write numbers to 100.
- "Teach addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of whole numbers, including tables, by means of objects, to 50.
- "Exercise in adding, subtracting by 1's, 2's, 3's, 4's, and 5's, to 100.
- "Exercise in examples in addition, using numbers embracing not more than three places.
- "Roman numerals corresponding with the reading lesson.
- "Use concrete and abstract numbers."

Such exercises will not teach the pupil that which he must know in order to use the nine digits easily, rapidly, and accurately; for he does not see the same sum or difference often enough to remember it, or know it at sight, and he must therefore count, or calculate. Thus he forms the habit of counting for every calculation.

All teachers know that a very large part of the time in the study of arithmetic is used in ciphering; that the average pupil calculates slowly, and makes many mistakes, causing his work to be done many times over.

We do not claim that there is any royal road, but do claim to be able to show a much shorter and a surer way than that generally followed.

Very little need be learned in order to prepare one to use the nine digits

																1	9															
readily and accurately, for with them only seventeen sums, from																1	to	9														
i. e., 2 to 18; and but forty-five different columns of two figures each, can be																																
written, viz.:																1	1	1	2	4	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	
																1	2	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	4	7	6	5	4	
																<u>1</u>						<u>3</u>						<u>7</u>				
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	2	3	4	5	3	4	5	6	4	5	6	5	6	7										
8	7	6	5	9	8	7	6	5	9	8	7	6	9	8	7	6	9	8	7	9	8	7										
				<u>1</u>					<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>						<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>											
6	7	7	8	8	9																											
9	8	9	8	9	9																											

the numbers in each, (*i. e.*, to know *the sum* at sight,) which is addition; 2d. What two numbers make any sum, which is a preparation for subtraction, or for reading and writing the difference between numbers. When these two things have been thoroughly learned so that pupils neither hesitate nor mistake in their use, they have mastered all of addition and subtraction, since all else is but a repetition or application of what is already known.

TIME FOR TEACHING.

The second school-year, or when pupils (seven years of age) have learned to count things, and also have the idea of numbers as expressed by the nine digits.

MANNER OF TEACHING.

Begin with sums of two digits in columns, viz: $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{array}$ etc. Have the pupils learn to read the sum of each column without thought of figures, as he reads words with no thought of the letters that spell them. When this can be done, let the pupils write all the columns of two digits which make five. Continue to furnish a new group, as $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 6 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 5 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 3 \\ 4 \end{array}$ as often as it shall be needed, and daily practice reading and writing the sums of the columns which have been used. Change the order of the digits in the columns, and the order of the columns, and as you point to each sum have the pupil name it in one word.

This should be the number-work of the pupils until each can tell the sum of any two numbers at sight. When all of the forty-five sums have been learned, the average pupil will recite, or read, their sums in a half-minute.

In teaching these sums, the signs, viz.: $4 + 8 = 7$, $5 + 4 = 9$, etc., should not be used, for the reasons—first, that in such case the sum is not in a normal form; secondly, that it causes the use of five words where but one is needed, and lastly, it forms a habit of thinking both figures and signs before reaching the sum, which is like always spelling words before pronouncing them.

The only proper use of such expressions as $5 + 4 = 9$, etc., is in stating examples, and, later, the pupil should be taught to read and understand them.

While pupils are learning to read the sums of two numbers they may also learn to tell what two numbers make any sum, as that $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 4 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 3 \end{array}$ each make five,

and that $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 8 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 7 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 3 \\ 6 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 4 \\ 5 \end{array}$ are all of the numbers which make nine, etc., etc.

They should study each group as they use it, and see what two numbers make the sum. Let them tell what two numbers make seven, etc. The teacher will give one of the two numbers that make a certain sum and the pupil will name the other.

When the child knows, for example, that $\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 9 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 3 \\ 8 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 4 \\ 7 \end{array} \begin{array}{r} 5 \\ 6 \end{array}$ are each eleven,

and when, any one of these two numbers which make eleven being named, he is able instantly to name the other, he is prepared to write the difference between eleven and any one of these numbers. The same is true of all the other numbers he has learned.

The normal order of writing examples in subtraction is the less under the greater, with a line beneath, and the difference is to be written below the line. Tell the pupils that the upper number is the sum of two numbers; that the number below it is one of those two numbers and that they are to write the other below the line. If either of these two numbers be taken away, the other will be left, which is also true of the things they represent.

Practice with such examples as the following, on the board, and have the pupils name the other number which, with the one given, will make the

15 13 12 7 10 17 13 11 18 15

upper, or larger number, viz.: $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 5 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 3 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 5 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ etc.

Tell them that this number which they are required to name is the difference between the two given numbers. They should also be able to write the answer to all such examples instantly by adding or supplying the lacking number.

The teacher should often illustrate these examples by using things, so that the pupils will have the correct idea of numbers, but the things should not be used while they are learning the operation with figures, since the process with things is not the same as with figures. When nine things are used,

1 1 1 1 1

and we take away four, viz.: $\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$ we count and find that there are five

9

things left, but when figures are used, *e. g.*: $\begin{array}{r} -4 \\ \underline{} \end{array}$ we do not take the 4 from the 9, for both these numbers remain unchanged. The four in this case represents one part of the nine and we are to write the other, or add it to what is already written. The pupil should be taught to think or write the desired number by *adding* it, because this is exactly what he does.

When pupils *know* what two numbers make nine, thirteen, etc., etc., they will not hesitate and calculate in addition or subtraction, for they *see* what is to be written for either the sum or difference. When they hesitate or calculate in writing the sum or difference of numbers, let them study the group or groups on which they fail until they know the sum of the numbers, and what two numbers make the sum. Pupils cannot learn what two numbers make nine, fifteen, or any other number, by performing examples or adding up columns of figures, but they will be able to do the latter work with great ease and rapidity if they have first thoroughly learned the sum and difference of numbers. They may add columns ten minutes daily for one year, and then they will not know the sum of two digits, or what two numbers make seven, nine, or thirteen, etc. The reason is that they do not see or use the same two numbers together often enough to remember their sum, for in

a column of four digits there may be twenty-four changes; in one of five digits one hundred and twenty changes are possible, and in case of the whole nine digits there are three hundred and sixty-two thousand eight hundred and eighty (362,880) changes or permutations. It is frequent repetition of a thing that fixes it in the mind subject to instantaneous recall or use. In adding long columns no such repetition is possible. A single figure is seen at a time, and the number represented by it is added to another in the mind but not present to the sight.

Each lesson should be an object lesson, and the pupil should learn the name and meaning of all figures and characters used. Writing and reading numbers should be taught in this grade, only as such numbers are used in the proper work of the child. That is, when he uses 15, 20, or 125, he should be able to enumerate and read those figures, and have the ideas which are expressed by them. But it is a waste of time and an error in method to teach a child to write and read 1000 when he can have no use for such a number, and no idea of its meaning. "Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof."

Write 10, 15, 17, etc., and show the pupils that each number has 1 in the second or tens place, and that the difference between these numbers is in the units. They have learned that $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 7 \end{array}$ are 15, and that $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 5 \end{array}$ are 12, so they may now recite sums and name only the units; *i. e.*, for $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 6 \end{array}$ say 4, and for $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 9 \end{array}$ say 6.

A few days' practice in reciting sums, naming only the units, will enable the pupil to instantly see the units for either sum or difference, and be of great value in preparation for a rapid use of numbers, inasmuch as when

pupils know that $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 7 \end{array}$ are 6 and $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 5 \end{array}$ are 3, they will know that 28 and 5 are 33, or that 29 and 7 are 36. This will also be of service in writing the dif-

ference between numbers, for if one knows that $\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 7 \end{array}$ are 5, and he is required to write the difference between $\begin{array}{r} 25 \\ 18 \end{array}$ he knows that he must write a number below the 8 which goes with it to make 5, and he also knows that number to be 7.

The pupils may also add sums of several columns, as—

32	\$42.15
<u>13</u>	<u>34.23</u>
\$436.32	

312.14 etc. In such examples the pupils will soon learn to read the sums from left to right just as readily as though they were actually written. We have seen eight-year-old pupils read such unwritten answers from left to right as fast as they could speak.*

*NOTE.—It will be necessary that no two numbers make ten or more in answers to be read by children in the second year's work. All such exercises are of value in teaching the pupils to see and read sums instead of figures.

When one knows that $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 15 \end{array}$ and $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 15 \end{array}$ are each 5, and he is to write the difference between $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 15 \end{array}$ and $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 15 \end{array}$ etc., he does not hesitate or calculate, for he knows what goes with 9 or 7 to make 5. If this is thoroughly learned before problems are given, there will be no doubt, hesitation, or mistake in writing the difference between any two numbers.

A car will carry - - - 405 sacks of wheat.

One man puts in - - - 237. How many sacks will fill the car?

The car-load is in two parts: one part is 237, and the pupil is required to write the other. This is done by adding it. He writes 8 under the 7 to make 5, carries (1) the ten to the next left-hand place, making the 3 equal 4, and writes 6 below the line. He then carries 1 to the 2, and writes 1 below the line, and he has 168 sacks required to fill the car. It is a simple process of *adding* to the smaller a number which will make the larger number.

To claim that we subtract what has been put into the car from its capacity, is misleading. Nothing is taken from the capacity of the car, for that is fixed, and remains 405 sacks. The 237 sacks also remain as the part the first man puts in, and 168 sacks *are added* as the number of sacks which is required to fill the car.*

After a little practice, one can write the difference as fast as he can make the figures, for he sees what to write without calculating.

The pupils are forming habits which will either aid or hinder them in their future work. If they learn to think for $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 4 \end{array}$, four from nine is five, these five words must pass through the mind before the answer is reached. But if taught to see the number that goes with four to make nine, they at once write 5, and can make no mistake, for they know what goes with 4 to make 9.

The pupils are now prepared to add larger sums, or longer columns. In order that they shall continue to see sums instead of figures, they should next

take up four-figure columns and add the two sums, viz.:

$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{array}$	Know-

ing the sum of each pair of digits at sight, they will see in the first column $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 5 \end{array}$ and say 14; in the second $\begin{array}{r} 6 \\ 8 \end{array}$ and the third $\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ 7 \end{array}$ and say 14. Have the pupils look for the sum of each pair of figures, and as soon as they see the two sums they know the full sum, which should be given in one word. Pupils will soon come to see the sum of two sums just as they see the sum of two digits.

* NOTE.—We may subtract things, but do not subtract numbers. We add and multiply numbers, but do not add or multiply things.

When one adds the sums of each pair of digits in four-figure columns, (as above,) there can be but three changes which will affect the numbers to be added. But when a new sum is made for each single digit and we say 9, 12, 14, each four-figure column must be written twelve times because of the new

sum made by the first three figures, viz.:

2	3	5	4	2	4	3	5	2	5	3	4
3	2	4	5	4	2	5	3	5	2	4	3
4	5	3	2	3	5	4	2	3	4	5	2
5	4	2	3	5	3	2	4	4	3	2	5

For those who add two sums the first four columns are all the same, i. e., $\begin{smallmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ 9 & 5 \end{smallmatrix}$ the second four is $\begin{smallmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 8 & 6 \end{smallmatrix}$ and the last four $\begin{smallmatrix} 7 & 7 \\ 7 & 7 \end{smallmatrix}$. It is like spelling the number-word 14 in three different ways.

One who adds the sums of each pair of digits in the four-figure column will soon learn to see the sum of any four digits; for as soon as he sees the

two sums he knows the full sum. In $\begin{smallmatrix} 4 & 9 \\ 5 & 3 \end{smallmatrix}$ one can see the two sums 9 just as

quickly as he can see the sums $\begin{smallmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 9 & 5 \end{smallmatrix}$ and he knows that 9 are 18 just as quickly and surely as he knows that 9 are 14. Yet in the latter case there is still 4 to be added to make the full sum.

By the one method the pupil will soon learn to name, *at sight*, the sum of any four digits, because of the few changes; but by the other he can never learn it, first, because of the many changes required; and second, because two calculations are necessary, and the first must be completed before the second can be made, and no one can make two calculations simultaneously.

It is not a difficult task for one who sees the sum of two digits, to learn to see the sum of two sums, or four digits, and be able to name the sum of sixty such columns per minute.

In such columns as $\begin{smallmatrix} 5 & 5 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 6 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{smallmatrix} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{smallmatrix} \right.$ or $\begin{smallmatrix} 7 & 6 & 6 & 8 & 7 & 7 \\ 8 & 8 & 7 & 9 & 9 & 8 \end{smallmatrix} \left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 5 & 4 & 3 & 7 & 6 & 5 \end{smallmatrix} \right.$ the pupils see the

sum of the units and count the tens. They think that 5 and 1 are 26, 4 and 2 are 26, and 3 and 3 are 26, etc., but with practice they learn to see that the sum of the first three columns is 26 and that of each of the last three is 30. When pupils readily add the sums of four-figure columns they should take three-figure columns and add the two sums in the same manner, that is, see the two sums and name the full sum.

A daily drill of ten minutes on four-figure columns will not be wasted. Two or three weeks of it will show its value beyond question, for the pupil will then tell the sum of any four digits without calculating, and add twice as fast as those who follow the single-figure method. Rapidity and accuracy in the use of numbers will thus be assured. We have never known a

teacher to try this plan who does not claim that he himself can use numbers twice as rapidly as ever before, and that he has never seen other pupils who could do as rapid work as those that have had this practice.

No child will suffer for the want of, or be benefitted by, arithmetical reasoning before he is nine or ten years old, but he may learn rapidly and accurately to write a sum, difference, product, or quotient of numbers, and these are all the operations he will be required to make in future ciphering. When he has learned the multiplication table and its application in finding the product and quotient, he is prepared for the study of oral or written arithmetic; but while a child calculates with difficulty, he cannot at the same time carry on a process of reasoning and have either process clearly and distinctly fixed in the mind.

The system of reading sums and differences cannot be learned by reading this paper, but must be mastered by learning the sum and difference of every two digits and then by using these sums as syllables in words, until one is able to see the sum of three or four digits as a word of two syllables.

We have urged the practice of adding two sums with the four-figure column because it gives a great advantage in adding the short column, and also because such practice prepares one to add, or read, the long column by taking a sum of ten or more at each step, and to see the sum which will be made by adding 12 or 15 just as readily as when an even ten is added to the same number.*

If one knows that $\overset{9}{2}$ are 1, he will know that $\overset{39}{2}$ are 41 and that 10 more are 51, or that 39 and 12 are 51.

In adding numbers greater than ten to a number in the mind, when the units to be added make ten or more there will always be two tens to count. If we add the sum of ten or more, at each step we always count one ten; *e. g.*, 25 and 12 we say 37, and to add $\overset{9}{7}$ *i. e.*, 6, to 37, the $\overset{6}{7}$ give 3. We see that 3 is the unit, and that there are two tens to be added, (or counted,) making 53. To prepare for this, pupils should count by tens, thus: 17, 27, 37, 47, etc.; and also by twenties, *e. g.*, 15, 35, 55, 75, 95, or 23, 43, 63, 83, etc., etc.

With a little practice one can add 13, 15, or 18 to any sum just as quickly $\overset{3}{3}$ and surely as he can add ten to the same number, for he then knows that $\overset{4}{4}$ are 7 just as quickly as he knows that $\overset{3}{0}$ are 3; and that 23 and 14 are 37 just as readily as that 23 and 10 are 33, etc. One also learns to add 38 and 17 at sight, for he knows that $\overset{8}{7}$ give 5, and that there are two tens to

*NOTE.—Since long columns of figures are not used in the study of arithmetic except in book-keeping, the practice with such should be deferred; but if an examination calls for such an exercise, a few minutes' practice will now prepare pupils to add with more than ordinary rapidity and accuracy.

count, which gives 55. No calculation is required, or mistake made, for he sees that 38 and 17 are 55.

When the time comes for using long columns, the pupil should be taught to read them by taking enough figures to make ten, or more, as a word, and to add the units and count the tens, *e. g.*:

3	74	As we here illustrate the work, we will only remark that if pupils have learned to see the sum of two, three, or four digits, they will readily see a sum equaling ten or more, and will soon be able to add 13 or 17 to any sum just as easily as they add an even 10 to that sum. To add 12 and 13, (see column,) we add the units and count the tens. To add 25 and 14, add the units and count the tens; <i>i. e.</i> , you see that 5 and 4 are 9 and say 39. In the next step, the units to be added make 10, so we must add 2 to the tens.*
61		
0		
51		
2		
4		
39		
2	25	
3		

Rapidity and accuracy in adding columns of figures depend upon having good system of grouping, and are greatly enhanced when one can add any number from ten to twenty to another number as readily as he can add ten to the same number.

We claim, that in teaching, or in using the digits, by the method herein explained, no unnecessary word is used; that the eye is trained to see and measure sums, or differences, as it uses words in reading; and also, that because there are so few combinations, and so few changes, one can easily master all that is essential to a rapid and accurate use of numbers. We ask all who are instructing children to make an honest test of our method, and see if it is not true that one-half the time now spent in ciphering may be saved; and we call upon them to graduate for the counting-room candidates fortified with a system of adding that covers every case, and is as easy and accurate as reading.

*See Addition Manual, published by Ginn & Co., for a fuller treatment of the subject.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES
OF THE
DEPARTMENT
OF
SECONDARY EDUCATION.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July 18, 1888.

The meeting was held in Union Square Hall; and was called to order at 2:30 P. M.

In absence of the President, the Vice-President, Mr. A. F. Nightingale, took the chair. Mr. Baker, of Colorado, was made temporary Secretary.

An opening extemporaneous address was delivered by Vice-President Nightingale, on "The Relations which the Secondary Schools Maintain to the Primary Schools;" after which J. B. McChesney, of Oakland, California, read a paper on the topic, "Teaching English in the Secondary Schools."

Mr. Cogswell, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Mr. Davidson, Belmont, California, and Mr. Swett, San Francisco, discussed the paper.

Mr. J. W. Macdonald, Stoneham, Massachusetts, then presented a paper on "Educating the Whole Boy;" after which the meeting adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

Met at 2:30 P. M.; the Vice-President in the chair. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

Olive A. Evers, Minneapolis, Minnesota, read a paper on "The Relation of the High School to the Training School." It was discussed by Mr. Swett, San Francisco; Mr. Nightingale, Mr. Parker, Chicago; Miss Matthews, Des Moines; Miss Evers, Miss Martin, Indiana; Mr. Brown, Columbus, Ohio; and Mr. Baker, Denver.

Extemporaneous discussion of "The Desirability of a Four-Years Course in High Schools" was opened by Mr. Nightingale; continued by Miss Smith, San Francisco; Mr. Parker, Mr. Baker, Mr. Kenyon, Fresno, California; Mr. Bray, Virginia City, Nevada.

Mr. Nightingale presented the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the high-school teachers assembled in the Secondary Department of the National Educational Association at San Francisco, that it is of the greatest importance in the education of our youth that every effort

should be made to secure a four-years course in all the high schools of the to the end that their graduates shall be better prepared for college, for the school, for the teacher's profession, and the duties of business life.

Miss Martin presented the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, That any or all persons engaged in the work of secondary education publicly invited to prepare papers for this section next year; that these papers be examined by the Executive Committee of this department, and that one or more of them be put upon the program, if found to be of sufficient merit. Such papers must be sent to the President of the Secondary Department on or before November 1889.

The following resolution was introduced by John E. Bray, Virginia Nevada:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of this department be requested to examine the proposition of a uniform course of study for high schools; and that they be requested to correspond with the colleges and high schools of the country; and that their report may be as exhaustive as possible; and that their report be presented at the next meeting of the Association.

Adopted.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers, consisting of Mr. Parke C. Brown, Chicago; Mr. Brown, Columbus, Ohio, and Miss Jessie Smith, San Francisco, reported as follows: For President, A. F. Nightingale, Illinois; for Vice-President, Abram Brown, Ohio; for Secretary, Lillie J. Martin, Indiana. The nominations were confirmed.

Meeting adjourned *sine die*.

JAMES H. BAKER, *Secretary pro*

PAPERS.

TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

J. B. M'CHESNEY, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA.

When the young art-student for the first time visits an extensive gallery, he is embarrassed with the riches spread before him. He sees opportunities for study in drawing, in color, and in the various departments of technique, and he is at a loss to decide how his limited time can be spent to the best advantage. Unless properly guided, it may be that the abundance of material for study will become a hindrance instead of a help, the wealth of opportunity only serving to a squandering of effort.

Is not a young student in English language and literature placed in a similar situation? As soon as he begins to scan the field he finds such a variety of attractions that he is at a loss how to use his time and energies to the best advantage. What is worse still, the field is almost an untrodden one; it is so vast and it presents so many interesting features that it is almost impossible to decide just what to do. Besides, those who would be his guides have more or less difficulty in deciding what paths should be followed. The broader the field, the farther apart will diverging lines lead.

Since it is desirable that all study of English in the secondary schools should lead to substantially the same goal, it is necessary that the same general plan of work should be adopted by those who have charge of this important branch of study. It is my purpose to consider what this general plan should be.

First, however, why is the English language and literature studied at all? If we can definitely determine why a considerable portion of the school-life of our pupils is devoted to this study, we may then, perhaps, see our way clear in deciding the direction of the path across this vast field. Mathematics, and history, and natural science, have so long occupied the attention of scholars that their place is quite definitely fixed. The reason for their position has long been recognized; the path has been trodden so many times that a novice can hardly fail to find the way, and to lead aright those who would tread therein. But with English, strange as it may seem, it is not so. In the attempt to make a path, stragglers have wandered hither and thither in an aimless way. The field has been trodden, but no goal has been reached; attractions have presented themselves, but they have not been enjoyed; wealth has been discovered, but it has not been appropriated.

We say, in a general way, that education puts a person into a more com-

plete possession of himself. The educated man can not only better perform the duties which devolve upon him as an integral part of a complex and highly organized society, but he is thereby put in better possession of his own faculties, so that he may the more perfectly realize his own individuality.

In one sense man may be considered a machine, the impelling power of which is motive. Motive is determined both by the quality and quantity of the intelligence he possesses and by the nature of his emotions. If the understanding is developed properly and sufficiently and the emotional nature is correctly cultivated, the motive which impels the human machine to action cannot drive it far astray. All knowledge and discipline should look toward a perfect comprehension of duty and the development of a desire for its performance. Duty dimly discovered may lead to error. We may wrong a friend by judging him from an imperfect or partial knowledge of circumstances; we reach false conclusions from knowing only a part of the truth. In proportion as our vision is clear and accurate and our affection pure and noble will our lives be satisfactory to ourselves, beneficial to society, and pleasing to God.

In answer, then, to the question why the English language and literature should form an important part of the curriculum of the secondary school. I would say, because thereby the student can be made acquainted with duty and at the same time the emotions may be so developed that it shall be made attractive.

It may be said that I place the standard unnecessarily high, but I am thoroughly convinced that anything less is unworthy and degrading. A standard less than this must be either aimless, or productive of vanity. When you purchase a ticket at the railroad office, you do not say to the clerk "I wish to travel in a given *direction*," but you specify a *place*. Neither do you determine your route by a desire to exhibit personal adornment, or to show your superior wisdom. The object for which you undertake the journey is well understood, and you are prepared to specify exactly what you propose to gain by its accomplishment.

Is it not true that much inefficient teaching results from a lack of a clear perception of what is really undertaken to be done? Studies are pursued as tasks in reality as well as in name are performed, which apparently end in themselves, there being no thought of anything beyond the task itself. A department of effort which is worthy of being classed with the education cannot end in the effort itself. It looks forward into the future, and must necessarily be a factor in determining character. The path of knowledge does not exist in and for itself; it leads to a definite place, and it exists till the place may be reached. The wise teacher comprehends this important truth, and labors with it constantly in view.

The possibilities of developing character through the medium of instruction in English can hardly be overestimated. Other branches of study

must reach this result, if at all, more or less indirectly; here, however, there is a direct communication between the thought of the author and that of the pupil; the author's thought becomes the direct object of study for the pupil. When this is done under the direction of a broad-minded and conscientious teacher, there is hardly a limit to the mental and moral awakening that may be produced.

Our literature is a repository of the noblest thoughts which the mind of man has conceived in all time. In it, veneration, sublimity, love, wit, pathos, and the strength and subtleties of logic all find expression. Every domain of thought has been explored, and the teacher has only to choose. No chord but has been touched by a master hand, and only an interpreter is needed to thrill the life again.

With what equipment in English should a pupil commence the high-school course? Evidently, he should be able to read, and to compose fairly well. Unfortunately, these requirements, in many cases, are beyond his capacity. By reading, I mean the ability to obtain thought from the printed page, and at the same time to express it orally. It is unnecessary for me to state to experienced teachers, how difficult this double operation is; how much discipline is necessary to its satisfactory accomplishment, and how few in the secondary school ever perform it with any real success. In referring to my own experience for the last twenty years, I find that the art of composition-writing has been better done by pupils entering the high school than that of reading. The reason for this state of affairs, I consider, lies in the fact that composition-writing is considered by most teachers to be a difficult operation, and thus receives the lion's share of attention, while reading, being considered an easy art, is permitted to take care of itself.

The student entering the high school should have also a fair knowledge of grammar. Specifically stated, he should be able to distinguish the parts of speech, to give such inflections as are found in our language, to trace the more common relations, and to separate plain sentences into phrases and clauses, and show the relations of each. Peculiar constructions, idioms, and disputed points in syntax, should receive no consideration in the grammar school. With this preparation in reading, composition-writing, and grammar, the pupil is ready for the high school as far as English is concerned.

Whatever has been done in these branches has been but elementary, and their study should be continued in the secondary school. Reading exercises should be carried on systematically and thoroughly, particular attention being given to voice-culture and thought-expression. Good reading implies more than oral expression, however clear the tones or musical the voice. The mechanical part is good as far as it goes, but beside it, and of even more importance, is that mental strength which grasps the thought and makes it clear to the listener. Do not make the mistake of supposing that because a pupil is in the high school he can read in the so-called Fifth and Sixth readers. Try him in the Third, or in selections of that grade. My experi-

ence has taught me that very few pupils in any part of the high-school course are able to read easy selections with any degree of satisfaction themselves, or of profit to their listeners. Hence all authors having abstruse or involved style, and all selections containing thoughts which require time for their mastery, should be avoided until easy pieces can be read with entire satisfaction. I desire to place particular emphasis upon the absolute necessity of good reading as a factor in obtaining the best results in the study of English.

Grammar should be reviewed until forms and relations are perfectly familiar. A broader view should be given to the classification of phrases and clauses, as well as to their logical functions. The parsing exercise formerly practiced should be omitted. No advantage is gained by repeating, parrot-fashion, grammatical forms, and giving properties to words which have no existence in fact. A knowledge of general relations is sufficient. It is enough to know that a given noun is used as a subject, or object; that another word is a transitive verb, and takes a certain substantive for its subject. While I place great value on definiteness of thought, and accuracy of statement, still I do not think this interminable discussion about nice points in grammar has any place in the secondary school. It may do for the amusement of school masters, and be a suitable topic for discussion in educational journals, but let us keep such things out of the class-room. The time and thought of the pupil are altogether too valuable to be wasted in such useless exercises.

Grammatical study should be so perfected during the first year that it could gradually give way to other lines of work. It should be pursued as a means to an end, and this end should be kept constantly in view. The teacher should ever bear in mind the relation it bears to the finished structure.

Composition-writing should occupy a prominent place in the department of English. It should be pursued systematically from the first. The kind of work done during the first year should have in view the requirements of the second and third years. No haphazard or unsystematic plan will produce satisfactory results. In this, as in all kinds of educational work, the teacher assumes the responsibility, and justice to his position demands that he have a definite aim in view. From the day the navigator leaves harbor until he casts anchor at the end of his voyage, every tack of ship and reef of sail has been performed that a certain port might be reached. The voyage was undertaken, not for the voyage merely, but for another purpose; so the labors of the teacher should look to a result beyond the labor itself.

Leaving for the present the consideration of what may be termed the linguistic phase of my subject, I proceed to take up the literary. The question for present consideration is, How can the limited time of the pupil be best employed in studying authors?

First, what is necessary in the study of words? If all pupils in the high

school studied Latin, the question would be of easy solution; but as only a limited portion of them do, some way must be devised to bridge over the difficulty. Since words are the vehicles of expression, it necessarily follows that they themselves must be well understood. A vast field opens here, and it is difficult to choose. A choice must be made, however, and it should be done with two distinct objects in view — the length of the high-school course and exactly what is aimed to be done during that period. It is very evident that in the Pacific Coast high schools, all of which are limited to a three-years course, no time can be given to special training in philology. It is essential, however, that the more common Latin and Greek roots, with their ordinary prefixes and suffixes, be memorized. In those schools in which the pupils have had no training in word-analysis, the teacher should prepare a list of roots, prefixes and suffixes for class use. The relations between modern English and Latin are those of child and parent; and to know the offspring we must make application of the laws of heredity.

The old English authors, including Chaucer and Spenser, with their wealth of thought and quaintness of expression, must be omitted. The same must be done with Anglo-Saxon grammar. The amount of time which could possibly be given to this line of study, valuable as it is, would be so limited that it would best be left untouched. Were the pupil to continue his course of study in the college or university, the case would be different; but I am considering a high-school course as a completed course, a unit by itself.

Second, what study shall be given to the sentence? This may be considered from several points of view. I have already stated what should be done on the grammatical side. With that fairly well accomplished during the first part of the course we are prepared to consider the sentence from the rhetorical side. Heretofore particular attention has been given to accuracy of statement, to the choice of words and to the fittest forms of expression; now we are to look to elements of grace and beauty, not, however, to the exclusion of former lines of work, as that must be continued as circumstances may render it necessary. In a general way it may be said that thus far the work in English has been directed to a development of the understanding. We are now to consider a kind of instruction which is directed largely to the emotional nature. When we reflect that the activities of life derive their source largely from the feelings, and that their results are measured mainly by the power therein developed, we are led to see the importance attached to their proper education.

Rhetorical figures should be made objects of particular study. Their value as forms of expression should be carefully noted, and their functions, as compared with plain forms of speech, be well understood. It is not sufficient that a given figure be known as a metaphor; it should be placed beside the literal form, and the reason for its superiority be recognized. Language and thought, which deal with the objective, are in the main precise, and thus are clearly comprehended, but when the subjective is under consideration,

clearness of expression frequently gives way to ambiguity and indefiniteness, because of a lack of clearness and definiteness in the thought. If a personification adds in any way to the force of a sentence, the pupil should be able to give a specific reason for it. The value of all rhetorical figures must be properly estimated if literature is to be rightfully appreciated, and have its legitimate influence.

I must not omit to mention, in this connection, that the teacher should avoid confounding weak sentiment and that sturdiness of feeling which the true poet possesses. We all may have, in some degree, real poetic feeling although we may not be gifted with poetic expression. And this poetic feeling is susceptible to cultivation. It may be aroused and strengthened by study. The noble feelings are weak and dimly discerned in youth, but with suitable mental culture, and with that experience which necessarily comes with advancing years, they may be so established that they will exert an ennobling influence upon the development of character. The aim of the teacher should be to lead the pupil to an intellectual apprehension of the value of rhetorical figures; with this knowledge will gradually come the development of the emotional nature which will find enjoyment in the best literature only.

The sentence and paragraph should also be viewed from the logical side. This, probably, will be for the ordinary high-school pupil the most difficult part of his work in English, as it is the most valuable. It is not enough to know the grammatical and rhetorical construction of a piece of composition, they being but a means for the expression of thought. The sentence exists for the thought it contains, and to be fully understood it must be viewed in the light of its logical relations. Literature lives through the ages because of the thought it embodies. While I do not claim that the teacher should be thoroughly trained in technical logic, still it is very necessary that he should be able to follow critically a train of reasoning, to distinguish the kinds of argument, and to detect any fallacy that may occur. The logical sequence of thought is often obscure and sometimes defective, and it follows that to obtain that comprehensive grasp necessary to a full understanding of the author, careful study must be given to his line of thought considered argumentatively.

The pupil should also become somewhat familiar with the life and times of the author he may be studying. Unless he is acquainted with the influences which moulded the character and thought of the writer, and thus be brought into sympathy with his motives, he cannot appreciate his works. This involves a certain amount of historical research, but it should be pursued. This research will not be valuable only in itself, but it will tend to a broadening of all historical study. It gives him an added interest in the hopes and sorrows and ambitions of those who lived centuries ago, and thus brings all humanity into closer relations with his own life.

During the progress of the study of the sentence and paragraph as I have

outlined it, some attention should be given to criticism. This will open the broad field of literary study. To some it may be objectionable as being altogether too ambitious, and quite beyond the capacity of the pupil. It may be said that the time can be spent more profitably in a fuller discussion of topics pertaining to etymology and grammar. While I readily admit the importance of these lines of study, of their absolute necessity even in any satisfactory study of English, still it must be apparent that if the time be so spent that they appear to be the only end aimed at, the results are hardly worth the labor. As already stated, grammar and rhetoric are only means to an end; and if this end be not attained, or if the pupil is led to see that this end is not even aimed at, the best results will fail of being realized. As the student ascends the hill of knowledge, he should be permitted to become gradually familiar with the ever-broadening landscape, and not be compelled to devote his entire energies to clearing away the brambles which obstruct his pathway.

Literary judgment, like all mental acquirements, results from labor. The difficulties to be overcome before the pupil can come into its possession should be no bar to early effort. Under the direction of a judicious teacher, the pupil can be led to see and to properly appreciate either beauties or defects of style. Then, too, a development of the literary sense will enable him to value properly a knowledge of grammar and etymology. When he is aware of the widened view made possible by a familiarity with the history of a word, he is all the more ready to dig among roots and get at the primary meaning of prefixes and suffixes. So let there be some attention to purely literary study. Were the high school always to be the preparatory school, then the studies pursued and the character of the teaching therein should have reference to that which would follow, but as a small fraction only of its pupils ever extend their studies beyond its course, it follows that its curriculum and the character of its instruction should be governed by its possibilities. In addition to studying the thoughts of others, the pupil should give attention to the art of expressing his own. This art, like all others, can be gained only by much practice. No course in English in the high school can be complete without systematic work in composition-writing. This I shall consider under two divisions, reproduction and invention.

During the first year particular attention should be given to exercises in reproduction. These may be either oral or written, and their character may vary from the pure paraphrase to the development exercise, or the expository paragraph. Great care should be given at first to oral reproduction. As in viewing a landscape different persons observe different features to the exclusion of others, so in the presentation of a succession of ideas some will be unduly attracted by one phase of thought, while others will be impressed by another quite different, and consequently in their reproduction the original proportionate values will be entirely destroyed. This habit of mind is so universal, and is entrenched so strongly, that the utmost care with long-con-

tinued practice will be necessary to overcome it. At first short sentences should be given; longer and more difficult ones may follow as the improvement of the class may warrant. Above all things, I would warn the teacher against being deceived in this matter of accuracy of statement. The apparent simplicity of the exercise is apt to produce the conviction that it can be done well, when, in reality, it cannot be.

The constant practice of oral paraphrasing is exceedingly valuable in many ways. It extends the pupil's vocabulary, gives variety to his expressions, and familiarizes him with the power and relative value of words. It cultivates a mental alertness so valuable to the student. It makes him quick to discern the thoughts of an author and ready to follow the order of their presentation. He becomes ready to detect illogical sequences, weak statements, and a confused arrangement. It also cultivates a clearness of vision which is of the utmost importance both in regard to an accurate conception of the thoughts of others and in the expression of his own. When the exercise is unusually difficult or lengthy the oral paraphrase may give way to the written one; still the ability to paraphrase off-hand and accurately should be the aim of every pupil.

Another reproduction exercise may be used with the more advanced pupils, which looks toward a cultivation of style. A few paragraphs may be read and re-read by the pupil until the continuity of thought is obtained and then an effort be made to reproduce the matter with as little variation as possible. Frequent exercises of this kind will develop ease and readiness of expression, which, when modified by peculiarities of temperament and character, become the pupil's style. This exercise may be either oral or written, but it must be done often to be of any particular value. First efforts should be made with selections from authors noted for simplicity of style and clearness of statement.

While speaking of paraphrasing, I wish to refer to an objection made by some to its use. They would discourage efforts of this kind because it is impossible for the pupil to state the thoughts of the original with the force and beauty of the author, and the result of any attempt must necessarily be so inferior that it will partake of the nature of a burlesque. It degrades the author, and familiarizes the pupil with weakness. They tell us it is much better for the teacher to endeavor to raise the pupil to the level of the author, than it is to degrade the author to the standard of the pupil. Objections of this kind are, however, more apparent than real. One of the important reasons for studying an author is, that he may be understood—that his thoughts may become the thoughts of the pupil—and exercises in paraphrasing test his understanding. Every teacher who has had any experience in this kind of school-work can testify how frequently the pupil fails to grasp the author's thought. As well object to the young artist making copies of the masters, or to the musical student's practicing the sublime compositions of Mozart, as to object to the student of English making

paraphrases of the grand conceptions of Milton, or Shakespeare. Let it be borne in mind that the pupil is a learner; one striving to grasp, one aiming to develop power. When the ability to see clearly has been gained, there will be no difficulty about appreciation.

Another useful exercise, somewhat similar to the paraphrase, is amplification of poetry or condensed prose. In the poet's treatment of a subject, much is left to be supplied by the imagination. This exercise on the part of the pupil to supply the missing links is an intermediate step between reproduction and invention. It gradually leads to those efforts in which the pupil must depend entirely upon himself for thought. First attempts will of course be crude, but repeated trials, directed by that keener perception which comes from study, will give in time satisfactory results.

The objection will be made here to depriving a poem of all the essentials to its individuality, of that charm which causes it to be a joy forever, in order that its thought may be put in dull prose. From one point of view, this operation does seem to be rather merciless, as well as offensive to that sentiment with which we invest a poem. Prof. Gray undoubtedly picked to pieces thousands of flowers in the prosecution of his studies, but I do not think he was led thereby to admire them any the less. In such cases, familiarity does not breed contempt. Ruskin says we never can admire sufficiently the budding of a rose, because it cannot be understood. No more can we admire sufficiently the truth as we find it embodied in the poem. The feeble and imperfect reproduction of the poem by the pupil is the result of an effort to combine the torn and bruised petals in another form, and the hopelessness of the task only serves to enhance its original beauty and to add to its loveliness.

While studying an author, a succession of mental pictures is constantly flitting before the mind. Reducing the more striking ones to writing is an excellent exercise in invention. Although descriptive composition, whether of the objective or subjective kind, is exceedingly difficult to master, still the high-school pupil should practice it. This exercise tends to develop that clearness of vision and accuracy in the statement of details so essential to good style. The narrative form of composition is more readily used, still no pupil can expect to excel without practice. Shakespeare's plays, which will occupy a prominent place in every course of study in English, offer an excellent opportunity for personal description, and for the study and delineation of character. The teacher should repeatedly require exercises of this kind from the class, as they tend to a broader comprehension of the play, besides giving opportunity for composition-practice.

Closely allied to the above are exercises in exposition. In objective description and in narrative, the materials are mostly gained through the senses; in exposition, recourse must be had to the reflective powers. No mental effort is more valuable to the pupil than that in which he endeavors to set forth his views regarding the attributes or value of a given subject for

the instruction of others. The utility of the effort lies in the fact that clearness of thought and its systematic presentation are absolutely essential to successful exposition. Constant practice in this work begets broadness of comprehension and facility of expression. Opportunity for themes of this character will be found in every author.

Exercises in argumentation offer a wider scope for effort than any other form of composition, because all other forms may be combined with it. In the study of every author, whether in prose or poetry, statements will be made, conditions presented, or courses of action followed, which will admit of opposing views. A complete statement of reasons in defense of the conduct of a character under consideration gives an opportunity for the exercise of the reasoning faculties. Added interest will be secured when different members of the class advocate opposing views. As far as possible, the argument should be based upon the text, quotations being used for reinforcement. As examples for themes in argumentation, taken from "The Merchant of Venice," I mention the following:

Does Portia indicate to Bassanio which casket contains her portrait?

Was Portia justified in deceiving her servants when she left Belmont to attend the court?

Are we sufficiently prepared for Shylock's suggestion, that a pound of Antonio's flesh be given as security for the bond?

Other themes for papers in argumentation will occur to the teacher.

In the composition exercises that I have thus far indicated, the pupil is led to consider the details of a piece of literary work. Particular study has been given to a bit here and a bit there; it is also necessary that the pupil should obtain a comprehensive view, and thus be able to form some estimate of the essay or poem taken as a whole. This may be done by making synopses or abstracts. A framework should be constructed such as the author may be presumed to have worked from. When this is done, a condensed statement should be added to each subdivision which will indicate the author's method of treatment. Brief and simple essays or poems should be used for first efforts. Practice with these will pave the way for the longer and more complex.

In making abstracts, the pupil is brought into close relations with the author; he imbibes more of his spirit, and comprehends more clearly his motives. He appreciates more fully his style, and obtains a more definite view of his sequence of thought. Besides, the pupil thus puts himself in a position to be more influenced by the poem taken as a whole. Studying details, he feels only the gently-falling drops of the storm; but when he puts the poem in an abstract, he subjects himself to the power of the cloudburst.

It may be thought, that in my scheme for the study of English I have attached too much importance to writing exercises. When we reflect, however, that the man who can express himself clearly and fluently, and there

utilize his information, has an immense advantage over him who, although brimful of knowledge, is virtually dumb, we must conclude that our duty to our pupils requires that we put them in full possession of their faculties. Knowledge, to be of value, must be available. Forever receiving and never giving begets selfishness, and the rule applies to the mental and spiritual, as well as to the material. Constant exercises in writing upon topics connected with the subject-matter under discussion will enable the student to take a broader view of the author's theme, as well as give an opportunity for the cultivation of the literary sense. His discrimination of excellence is made keener, and his taste improved. He learns to appreciate the good, both in literary style and in the thought presented, and to enjoy it. With this appreciation, there will come, of course, a distaste for the weak, the sentimental, and the vicious. All this implies investing his life with a panoply which will protect him from the great mass of cheap and degrading literature, and at the same time surrounding him with a sweet and refining influence, which will ever come from a communion with the great and good of ages past.

And this is what should be the result of a study of English in the high school, and this it will be, with the instruction similar to that I have outlined, provided the teacher breathes into it all a spirit quick to discern and to love all that is noble and true in life and character.

EDUCATING THE WHOLE BOY.

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At a meeting of evangelical ministers, held in the city of Boston the past winter, the teaching of morals was discussed, and the reverend gentlemen paid us teachers the high compliment of unanimously agreeing, that for the advancement of morality the teaching of morals must be introduced into the public schools. They seemed to think that nothing in this line, of any account, was now doing in the schools, because there were not regular periods for text-book recitations, or for set homilies by the teacher—a very natural opinion to come from men predisposed by their education to overestimate the effect of preaching.

Again, during the past month, the medical men had a meeting in the same city, at which they discussed the question of physical training; they, too, unanimously, I believe, agreed that the welfare of the country demanded that a regular system of physical training be introduced into the public school. They did not go into details, so it is only by conjecture that I infer that they would have, as general director of the system, one of our now famous citizens who has lately traveled in Europe.

So far as I know, the lawyers have not been heard from, presumably be-

cause there is no reformation in which they are especially interested. But there are scores of miscellaneous societies knocking at the school-house doors.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union is endeavoring to effect, in all the states as it already has in some, the passage of a law making compulsory in the public schools the formal teaching of temperance.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals is attempting the same thing in its line of work. A short time ago a society devoted to the cause of social science, voted that some prosperity or other—I have forgotten just what—demanded the introduction into the public schools of courses in industrial training, especially in carpentry, for boys, and in cooking and sewing, for girls. In short, there is hardly a week that some society, devoted to the promotion of this or that, does not come out with the declaration that this or that must be made a formal part of public-school instruction. It would almost seem as if it were the prevailing opinion, notwithstanding abundant evidence to the contrary, that children out of school hours are in a comatose condition, and incapable of receiving any instruction or training whatever. The truth is, the large numbers of children gathered daily into school-rooms furnish tempting fields, if access to them can be obtained, to every hobby-horse rider and gibbous-headed reformer for doing what each considers the *sine qua non* in reforming the world. He will probably continue to call for that access more and more vociferously; and there is a danger that the plausible, or at best the transient considerations, crowd aside the less showy fundamental.

A question, then, that the new education must meet is, How far shall this clamor prevail? The time has been that the intellect was regarded as the teacher's peculiar stamping-ground, and intellectual training his peculiar vocation. Not that all else has ever been neglected, for the human faculties are so correlated that one of them cannot be trained without more or less taking the others into service. But in our scheme of public-school education all training, except intellectual, has been considered incidental, to be attacked, as it were, *ex itinere*, and not as chief objective points. Is this to be changed? Over what is the school to extend—or rather, is there anything over which it is not to extend its fostering wing? This and similar questions the new education must answer, and in answering it must keep in mind a few well-defined facts. It must remember that out of the fifteen or sixteen hours of every day of the year that the boy, to use his own expression, is "alive and kicking," he is only for about five hours of a part of each of those days, under the direct care of the school. It must, therefore, follow that there are many things in the boy's education that mainly devolve on home, church, and society, and for which home, church, and society must be held responsible. We must not forget that sooner or later the education of each boy must diverge from the general current into an individual channel, where, under the stimulus of necessity and close contact, he will

learn his part in the work of life far easier and better than in the earlier, and more or less artificial, training of the school. There is an enormous waste of energy consequent upon teaching things in advance of the boy's development, needs, or conditions, and upon endeavoring to force all boys into the same mould. The sparrow that would teach its young to fly the moment they left the shell, or, I may add, the tortoise that would ever teach its young to fly, would both be losing their labor. And yet it is a serious question whether this is not paralleled in our schools, and whether we are not wasting a great deal of effort in trying to make "silk purses out of sows' ears." If this query seems to any one strange and unfounded, let him remember that this paper, like many of our Eastern almanacs, is adapted to the latitude of Boston. It is one of the cardinal points of our Eastern creed that if we aim at the sun we shall shoot higher, even though we miss, than if we aim at a stump, and so we educate every boy with a view to his becoming president. Not a bad object, indeed, if we keep in mind the qualities becoming that high office; but, after all, is it not a higher object to fit the boy for living right? If so, then the new education must reconstruct the popular notion of the practical, and no longer allow the word to be associated with bread and butter and money-bags only. A practical education must take into account not only man's working-hours, but his leisure hours. The education that provides for the former is just now the most popular. The visible utility pervading it inspires confidence and enthusiasm. But not to provide for man's leisure hours, is to neglect the most critical moments of his life. The industrial index seems to point to lessened hours of labor. What shall be done with the increased leisure, is a vital question; for never are the gates of hell so temptingly wide open to a young man, and the descent so easy, as when he has a little money in his purse and some leisure on his hands.

It may be a little aside from the general purpose of this paper, but not altogether irrelevant, to say that the prime requisite for educating the whole boy, is a teacher who knows the whole boy. The lack of a working knowledge of the psychological and ethical laws by which the boy's intellect and character must grow, is a too-prevalent characteristic of the American teacher. The normal schools are undoubtedly doing much to correct this; but the normal school is too often a short cut to the professional name, rather than a thorough training for the profession. The education is too narrow, and too much taken up with details that belong to the common school. I know I am treading on dangerous ground in making these criticisms. Our brethren of the normal schools prefer to do their own criticising. But I may be allowed to suggest that as long as normal schools are mere "short cuts" to the profession, their product will be unsatisfactory. Young people of eighteen or twenty, notwithstanding the preponderance of their own opinion, have not had time to acquire both the knowledge needed in teaching and the how and why it should be taught.

The work of educating the whole boy falls under three general heads: the physical, the ethical or moral, and the intellectual. Physical education includes the formation of habits conducive to health and bodily vigor; the cultivation of the senses; of facility in speaking and singing; of dexterity in writing, drawing, playing instruments of music, manipulating machinery; in short, of all forms of muscular activity.

Ethical or moral education is the cultivation of sentiments of honesty, truthfulness, self-restraint; in short, of all the moral obligations due to one's self, to his neighbor, and, including both, to God; and a training of the will to act responsive to these sentiments.

Intellectual education is the accumulation of knowledge of all kinds by the memory, and the cultivation of the power to reason upon it, and to deduce judgments from it that will become new elements of knowledge, or guides to our individual conduct.

It will be seen by this that I have somewhat altered the common classification of the human functions—I trust, in the direction of simplicity. God's plans are always simple; but one cannot study the orthodox work on psychology without feeling somewhat as did Alphonso of Castile respecting the Ptolemaic system of astronomy.

It will be observed that I have placed some things under the head of physical faculties that are popularly associated with the intellectual, and that I have classified the will with the emotions, where in my opinion it belongs, and made them together the seat of the moral senses. But you will perceive that I have confined physical and moral education to the cultivation and habituation of their respective functions, excluding the study or knowledge of the philosophy underlying them. This study and knowledge belongs to intellectual education, and does not necessarily imply physical training on the one hand, or moral training on the other. For example, to understand the philosophy of music does not make a man a musician, nor does a knowledge of right necessarily imply an appetite to do it. They have little, I might almost say no connection. Why, if to know were to do, there would not be one sin committed yearly—at least not in and around Boston. There are lots of us who will lie and cheat, but we know better. I know a man who can recite to you every word of the Ten Commandments, and he never lives an hour without breaking one or more of them. Some people wonder at the vast amount of preaching there is on the one hand, and the vast amount of villainy there is on the other, and thoughtlessly pronounce preaching a failure. Why so? Preaching can only instruct, and so far as it imparts anything it is an intellectual acquisition, not moral training. Now where can a dozen intelligent men be found to convict preaching of failure by showing that they do not know the difference between right and wrong? For one, I claim that preaching has been eminently successful. If there has been failure anywhere, it lies with those who have had charge of the practice. If somebody will see that every

individual through life receives just reward or punishment for every good or evil deed; that every act of honesty and self-control brings joy, and every act of dishonesty and selfishness brings misery and shame; and if this can be kept up for a few generations till all the inbred meanness of ages be thoroughly out-bred, then we shall be able to talk intelligently of success and failure.

In associating the emotions, sentiments and will together, I have returned to an earlier, and it seems to me more correct, classification of the human faculties. All these tend to excite action, the will being the highest and most peculiarly human. To say that the emotions are to the will what the foot-hills are to the mountain would not be an unapt simile, were it not that foot-hills always remain foot-hills; but the emotions—as anger and lust, love and hate—sometimes o’ertop the will, or the will itself may be degraded. Borrowing a better figure from mechanics, we may call the will the resultant of the emotions.

But in discussing the ethical education of the boy, we are met at the outset by these questions, the same as will meet us in the other divisions of our subject: How far does the responsibility and jurisdiction of the school extend, at what should the teacher aim, and what should be the method? In answer to the first, let it be clearly understood that the school is and can only be supplementary to the home and society.

The life of the child outside the school-room is peculiarly given to the formation of character, and for this, home and society should be held strictly responsible. For the school to assume to combat all the evil influence to which the boy outside its threshold is exposed, is to renew the effort of the good Mrs. Partington to keep back the Atlantic ocean. The school should assume that the boy comes to it with correct ideas of right and wrong, as becomes his age and intelligence, and should concern itself, as opportunities arise, with seeing that he regulates his acts and conduct by a correct standard.

“But,” you will ask, “if the home and society have not done their part, what then?” Then more circumstances will arise that must be met, but the responsibility should be placed where it belongs, just as you would place it if scholars came to you from a lower school deficient in arithmetic or grammar. What if the annual report of the school-board, in place of the familiar platitudes, should contain something like the following: “Mr. A., by his cruelty and example, is habituating his children to falsehood and dishonesty, and making them indifferent to the distinction between right and wrong;” or, “Mr. B. allows his son to frequent a place where a vulgar set of loafers are teaching him every kind of obscenity and profanity?” At least public attention would be called to the obstacles against which moral training has to contend. A father once came to me with the complaint that his son, a boy in my school, would lie to him and deceive him, and asked me to take him in hand. What I might have truly said to the

man was this: "My dear sir, why shouldn't your boy lie and deceive? You lie and deceive; his mother lies and deceives; all his grandfathers and grandmothers as far back as they can be traced, lied and deceived; and do you expect me in a few months to eradicate all this depravity, both hereditary and acquired? Go home, sir, and set your boy a better example." Well, I talked to the boy, and found him acquainted with all I could say to him about the wrong of lying. The problem, then, was not the same as if I had been teaching him physics, for example. Then, I would have had to introduce him to new knowledge as well as train his faculties; now, he had the knowledge, and practice was what he needed.

The aim of the teacher, then, in moral training, should be to lend his assistance to ingraining into the boy correct habits and sentiments. What shall be the method? The ministers at the meeting to which I have already alluded, complained that there was no suitable text-book on morals. No suitable text-book, indeed! With Macbeth and King Lear, Comus and Lycidas, in short, with all our noble literature, and, above all, our grand old Bible, and no "suitable text-book"! Morality can be taught better than from text-books. Every study the child pursues furnishes a hundred and one opportunities to send home a moral shaft that will penetrate all the deeper because it comes unexpected, and catches him off his guard. The teacher should take the utmost care that an absolutely untainted moral atmosphere invests the school. Let the boy see that right and justice pervades all its management; let him be made to feel that the school and its regulations are a part of his country, and that disorder or disobedience is treason. So far as it lies in the teacher's power he should strive to prevent the artful deceptions, to which scholars are inclined, from succeeding. While riding in the cars a short time ago, I overheard the conversation of two young ladies, one of whom had not been to the high school of which she was a member, for several days. She explained that she had been to a ball and to the theater, that she hadn't been in bed for several nights till after midnight, and "couldn't get up time enough in the morning to go to school." In answer to a question of her companion, she said that when she returned to school, she was going to give as an excuse for her absence that she had been sick, adding that her parents said she looked sick. I was curious to make some inquiries about the case afterwards, and found that she did give that excuse, and that the teacher not only accepted it, but actually condoled with her, telling her she didn't look well, and advising her to be careful of her health and not to study too hard. I do not suppose this was her first essay, but success was making her an adept in the white lies with which society thinks it necessary to lubricate itself.

There is one practice too prevalent in schools, though I think more especially the vice of small private schools, which cannot be too severely censured. It is the practice of allowing pupils to accept the whole credit for work that they have at most only partially done. To illustrate:

Johnny brought home one day a picture representing some nicely-drawn pigs. Around the feet of the pigs, however, there were some rather awkwardly-drawn lines. It would have puzzled the imagination to have decided whether they were meant for uprooted sods, rocks, or spears of grass. Johnny's name was written as the artist. "Why, Johnny," exclaimed his mother, "did you do this?" "Yes," answered Johnny, with evident self-importance. "All of it?" insisted his mother. "Yes," repeated Johnny, this time a little less positively, "all but the pigs. Teacher did them." How many times in the season of graduation just passed has the young graduate won applause by delivering as his own an essay that was largely the product of the same hand as Johnny's pigs?

But the one thing greater than all others that the school can do for the cause of morality, is to place over their pupils teachers whose lives illustrate what they would have the pupils become. The silent influence of noble, manly goodness cannot be overestimated, and makes text-books on morality a needless incumbrance.

The medical men, in the meeting to which I have referred, admitted that they had given little thought to the details of physical training in the schools, but they made one recommendation that leaves me in doubt whether they were really seeking the physical welfare of the children, or whether, as they are sometimes twitted of doing, they were not seeking, like the cobbler in "Julius Cæsar," to get themselves into more work. They recommended marching exercises in the school-hall. Now, of all physical exercise, marching in a school-hall is about the worst. It is stiff; it exercises but few muscles, and those the ones that least need it. Furthermore, within a very few minutes, the air of the hall will become so filled with dust that it will be unwholesome. Compared to a ramble, or a frolic in the fields, the garden, or the park, with all its freedom and variety of motion, or some such open-air game as lawn-tennis, it is wholly to be condemned. And what is here said of marching applies with even more force to military drill. Where one boy is benefitted by it, a score are injured. Gymnastics and calisthenics are better than marching, but in my opinion they are overestimated. More than this, the way they are used, and the reason given, are utterly unscientific. They are usually introduced into the study-hours, to relieve the mind from continuous study. Now this is just what ought not to be done, and is the chief objection to long recesses devoted to violent play. It is worse than unscientific—it is injurious. At first, it requires some little time and effort to get the brain working; to overcome mental inertia, as it were. But after awhile the blood begins to flow to the brain, and then study runs easily. But, suddenly, the teacher taps a bell, books are laid away, and there is a lively course of gymnastics to call the blood away, to be weakened by nourishing muscular activity. This being accomplished, the pupils are again set at work to get it back into the brain again, if they can. This is as wrong as it can be. Mental and physical work are, in a degree, antagonistic to

each other. They are, however, both necessary, but they should not be alternated like thin pieces of gold-leaf between sheets of beaters' skin. From the beginning to the end of the session there should be as little interruption as possible to the flow of blood that nourishes the brain, and a period of quiet should intervene between mental work and either physical exercise or eating. It is amusing to note the number of people who think it something dangerous to have blood flow to the brain, and to observe the satisfaction with which they receive the assurance that they do not seem much subject to it.

The place for gymnastics and similar exercises is at the end of the session, if in school at all; but in my opinion they belong out of school-hours.

Passing over for the present the question of industrial training, we come to certain physical accomplishments, the training of which, all agree, is a legitimate part of school-work: such as reading, writing, drawing, and singing. The general aim, however, in physical training is very different from what it should be in purely intellectual training. But this difference, so far as I know, has rarely been alluded to in works on psychology, and in pedagogical discussions. The injury, it may be added, resulting from this oversight, has mostly fallen on intellectual training. To show this difference, I ask your attention to a few psychological facts, and if in doing so I state principles with which you are already familiar, I do so only to make clear the point at which I am aiming.

Our activities are of two kinds: automatic—as winking and breathing—and volitional. But activities that are at first volitional, by repetition strongly tend to become automatic. This law is universal, working alike in all the departments of man's nature. It is no less marked in activities purely intellectual or moral, than in those purely physical; and our way of thinking may become as actually automatic as our way of walking. Unless resisted with the utmost vigilance, automatism soon acquires a controlling influence in the business man's speculations, the lawyer's pleas, the politician's prejudice, and the Christian's prayers. In ethical training, as I have already shown, this is the end to be sought. Thus is formed character, and the man is nearest moral perfection whose emotions respond most instinctively. It is of the greatest importance, too, in physical movements, so far as they aim at a definite and fixed object, as is the case in all industrial occupations, including the manipulation of musical instruments, and in all those physical functions whose training, as I have said, belongs to the work of the school. The ultimate aim in all these is automatic action. At first, in learning a new trade or occupation, we have to control our movements by volition, and we find that a little work tires us; but as our movements become automatic we double or treble the work with comparative ease. At the same time the mind is set free to do something else or nothing, as we feel inclined. David Livingstone was able to study with his book bound to the frame of the spinning-jenny which he tended. (I have heard of a woman

who could rock the cradle, mend the children's clothes, hum snatches of old hymns, and think over her Sunday-school lesson, all at the same time.) Until writing and spelling have become automatic they distract the mind, and this is the reason why young people and those unused to literary work find it so difficult to express themselves correctly on paper.

I have said that automatism is the ultimate aim in all physical training. But it is not necessarily the immediate aim. In order to ultimately attain the highest dexterity and skill, the pupils should be stimulated as long as possible to volitional effort. For as an activity becomes automatic, improvement stops, and its influence as a mental stimulus ceases. The difference in workmen is the difference in degree of attainment at which they relapsed into the automatic. As the heart-wood of a tree marks previous growth, and leaves the sap free to make new, so automatic dexterity marks previous development and leaves the mind free for other activities. But so far as a man has become an automaton, so far he has lessened the difference between himself and a machine, and unless the mind has some employment to keep it from shriveling, the difference rapidly approaches that mathematical minimum, *de quo nihil curatur*. In the present minute division of labor, as carried out in all our manufacturing industries, where each individual learns and expends his whole life at the fraction only of a trade, mental degeneration is rapid unless counteracted by some individual aspiration. "To have never done anything but make the eighteenth part of a pin," writes M. Say, the economist, "is a sorry account for a human being to give of his existence." (Political Economy, chap. VIII.)

But what shall be the remedy? Such men as Livingstone, Stephenson, Franklin, and Lincoln have answered this. Though bred to the spinning-jenny, the coal-shovel, the printing-press, and the axe, they have taught the youth of England and America how to grow up into men. And I hold it to be the supreme aim of the school to equip the boy with tastes and faculties trained to resist his natural tendency to become a machine. The question of industrial training in the public schools seems to me, then, to be reduced to this: place the natural boy of fifteen in a manufactory, and at twenty-four he will largely be an automaton. Shall the school accelerate this result, or shall it strive to avert it by exerting all its energy to raising the boy while he is in its care to a higher and freer life? The old ferryman at Bangor always rowed a good distance up stream before trusting himself to the strong downward sweep of the current. Has he not taught us a lesson?

What I have said will, I trust, make clear the difference of aim in physical and in intellectual education. In the former, it is ultimately automatic facility and ease, and to secure this, it needs only continuous repetition. This is the desired end, as I have already said, in operations that, with fixed and definite materials, seek fixed and definite results—as pen, ink, and paper, to produce written characters; leather, pegs, thread, and tools, to produce a

shoe. This, too, may be the desired aim in a few intellectual operations, as spelling, the language sense, and the fundamental processes of arithmetic. But by far the greater part of the questions with which the intellect may be called upon to deal are not of this kind. For example, in performing the functions of a citizen, what are man's materials, and what the aim? The materials are the thousand and one emergencies that are continually springing up in our social relations; the aim, to decide upon our duty—changing and unexpected materials, and results difficult to determine, and liable to error. The best training to fit a man for this is the training that resists to the utmost the innate inclination of the mind toward automatism. To this, in intellectual training, the teacher should direct all his efforts. Says Miss Anna C. Brackett: "We should remember that the natural tendency of the child's mind is toward mechanism. We should bend all our energies toward overcoming this tendency, and toward forcing him to think; and we ought to be well satisfied with ourselves, if at the end of each day's work we can only truthfully exclaim with Dick Deadeye, in 'Pinafore,' 'They're foiled, they're *foiled*, they're FOILED!'"

That this will be no easy task, we can see from the lessons of history, which show that dogmatists and bigots are the indigenous product, not statesmen. But, as it seems to me, it is the weakness of the school that where effort is most needed it is least exerted; that we are putting a mighty effort into making the boy what he would become without our help, an automaton; and are almost entirely neglecting that far more valuable acquisition,—and, it may be added, one that it is the prime duty of the school to impart to him,—a living, growing, versatile, honest intellectual faculty, capable of correct reasoning and logical deduction.

Two causes have conspired to make inductive reasoning, and, for that, almost all reasoning, a stranger to the school-room.

First, The popular clamor for thoroughness and minuteness; proper enough in physical and ethical training, but in mental training the way to intellectual death.

Second, The fact that teachers with an illogical persistence that well illustrates my argument, delude themselves with the notion that the boy is learning to reason, when in fact he is only memorizing the reasoning of others; two things as wide apart as the antipodes. To illustrate, let us follow the pupil through the preparation of a lesson in geometry, which he is supposed to be studying for the cultivation of his reasoning powers. He opens his geometry to the following proposition: If two straight lines cut each other, the vertical angles are equal. Having duly memorized this statement, he passes to an elucidation of its meaning, which the author has kindly appended, as follows:

"Let the two lines, AB and CD, cut each other at E; then the angle AEC—the angle DEB." (Here is inserted a figure, showing the exact position of things, to enable the pupil to see what the author is explaining;

eye taking the place of reason.) "For," continues the author, "the angles AEC and DEB are each supplements to AED, [here is inserted a reference to a section where the meaning of supplement is explained,] and are, therefore, equal to each other." Having gone through this explanation three or four times, the boy is ready for recitation, and will, if his memory holds good, undoubtedly win the commendation of his teacher. If this is learning to reason, then memorizing the keys of the piano will make one a Rubinstein.

Further on in the book, we find a few pages of propositions for original demonstration. Now, working out original demonstrations is excellent mental discipline, but I notice that the original propositions are generally accompanied by directions, or references to preceding sections, that practically explain the whole process. Where these are lacking, teachers tell me they are accustomed to give clues; and in many cases, I am convinced that these clues bear the same ratio to the full demonstration that the tail of Paddy's snake did to the whole snake: "The baste," said he, "was all tail."

A pupil of a leading scientific school, in which geometry holds an important rank, informed me that about ten per cent. of the geometry work consisted of propositions for original demonstration. In answer to my question as to how the pupils did the original work, he explained that they found most of it in "other books," part they got from "older pupils," and the rest was so easy they could "see right through it."

I visited a school, once, where the teacher of geometry took the last part of each recitation to demonstrate to her class the propositions for the following day,—"to make it easier for them," she said,—and dismissed them with an exhortation to remember how she had done it. This seems absurd, but it is no more so than to memorize the full demonstration from a book.

I do not deny that there may be exceptions to the method I have described, in certain schools, or perhaps in every school; but I believe I am right in saying that, in the main, the study of geometry or algebra as conducted, involves on the part of the pupil the exercise of the same mental processes only as a memoriter lesson in history, or learning a declamation.

I do not say this hastily, but as the conclusion of an investigation that I have made extending through several years, for the purpose of ascertaining the exact mental processes of the pupil, evoked in the study of such branches as geometry, physics, English literature, and history. I found everywhere these mental processes few and the same, and an absence of systematic individual reasoning. I would not say that I found no reasoning going on. I was standing one day at the window of a school-room, watching the children playing at recess. An eminent Boston gentleman has lately told us that it is not good for the health of children to think. If so, we must stop their playing. I saw on this occasion, such alert, inventive, original thinking in their efforts to gain points on each other in the game they were playing as I had not seen elsewhere. It caused me to hesitate about recommending

the "no-recess" plan, for fear it might lessen the school time given to real thinking. I had a fellow-student in college who used to say that he got more mental discipline in contriving to cut recitations and get along without study, than the rest of us did by cramming for a good recitation. I remember discussing this question with him, taking the opposite view; but I didn't know so much then about education as I do now.

I have said that I extended my investigation into physics, and I was forced to the conclusion that the inductive process by which it was claimed that the sciences are being taught, is largely visionary and delusive. The observations and conclusions are usually accelerated by the teachers: Johnny's pigs again. We are doing enough, and more than enough, toward the acquisition of knowledge, but we are doing it in such a way that the child's intellect is fettered by automatic drill. The fault is not altogether ours. The clamor of parents, school supervisors, and above all, the colleges, for a certain fixed quantity of knowledge, does not allow us to wait for the natural development of the child's mental faculties. The result is too much teaching, and the child grows up to feel an intellectual dependence and helplessness that does the new education little credit. My own experience is confirmed by a remark lately made to me by a teacher. "The scholars who come to me," said he, "seem to think that they have given an entirely satisfactory excuse for not having done work assigned them when they say, 'I didn't understand it.' " The absence, I had almost said the departure, from the school of almost everything that tends to develop self-reliance and independent, honest thinking, is one respect in which the new education falls short of the old. Then, the very ignorance of the teacher, though bad in many respects, especially for the duller pupils, threw the more ambitious on their own resources. Before we sneer too much at the old education, it might be well for us to ascertain what per cent. of pupils by the new are developing into Franklins, Websters, and Lincolns. It is a lamentable fact that notwithstanding our widespread and expensive educational system, the American people as a whole are poor thinkers. To say that seventy-five per cent. of all the legislation annually in this country heaped upon the people is prompted by prejudice and selfishness rather than reason, would be putting the estimate low. You may say this is strong language — that I myself am prejudiced. Perhaps so: I have just been reading the present tariff debate in Congress.

What is needed, then, is that the one-method plan for all studies, an error too liable to occur in normal-school training, be abandoned; that each study be pursued with a definite purpose and by a method to accomplish that purpose — this one to influence character, those to effect some physical or mental dexterity, and those to awaken and develop the higher intellectual faculties. In these last, all mechanical repetition should be avoided; quantity and thoroughness, as the word is generally used, should be sacrificed to accomplish the end; every problem presented to the pupil should contain

some new factor, and all over it should be written, as caution to the teacher, "Hands off; this is for the pupil, and he must make it out for himself," right if he can, but wrong rather than by assistance; and lastly, examinations must be circumscribed, for they can only measure acquisition, not mental growth. When this is done—in other words, when teachers will stop carrying coals to Newcastle, and devote their energies to irrigating the dry but fertile desert—then, and not till then, will the schools produce pupils not only fit for industrial automata, but fitted for social life and to be citizens of a great republic like ours.

RELATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL TO THE TRAINING SCHOOL.

OLIVE A. EVERS, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA.

The necessity for special training of teachers has become so widely recognized by both the laymen and professional educators, that before such a body as this, at least, there is no need for defending the existence of the city training school for teachers, though there may be a fitness in giving some consideration to the end for which this particular class of schools was organized, before entering upon a discussion of the preparation for that work furnished by our high schools.

Without elaborating upon this point, it may be said that the training school is established primarily for the purpose of affording to the young and inexperienced, who decide to enter upon the work of teaching, a short course in the theory and practice of that profession, which will, to *some* extent, insure to them that intelligence concerning their work, to begin with, which can be gained—except by actual experience in the school-room—in no other way than by taking a professional course.

Such a course will aim to give the immature, unreflecting young woman (for it is principally young women who enter training schools) some conception of the responsibility she is undertaking, some just notions concerning the nature of the being she is to educate, some data for reflection upon the principles that must shape all real and valuable practice of the art of teaching.

Broadly stated, these are the ends for which our training schools exist, each particular school differing, of course, from all others in the details of its requirements for admission and graduation, to suit the system of schools for the especial benefit of which it was organized.

Year after year, superintendents are forced to a consideration of the question: How am I to secure intelligent teachers when low salaries and pressing demand for the employment of inexperienced home applicants confront me from every point?

Primarily, the city training school answered this query, and will, I doubt not, continue so to do, until to find a city possessing a thriving, progressive system of public schools without its training school will be the exception.

Having such an institution established, and competent instructors employed, several questions of vital importance to its successful operation demand consideration. Foremost among them is that taken as our topic for discussion at this hour.

Naturally, the question of first importance is, What are the qualifications necessary to the pupil, without which she fails to receive much valuable help from the course of training? All will allow, that to picture the ideal teacher is not a difficult task. Her qualifications can be named by a youngster of ten, who has a slight familiarity with the school-room, about as readily as by the experienced thinker of fifty.

It is not to those virtues, or attainments, which *should* be possessed by the would-be teacher that I allude, but to those that are absolutely essential to her own advancement in the study of her art; necessary to the success of her future work in the school-room; indispensable to the successful work of a successful fitting-school for teachers.

Laying aside considerations of moral qualifications, there are unquestionably no others of as great importance as good scholarship and mental acumen. Under ordinary circumstances, no inexperienced, immature girl of eighteen or twenty years could be expected to have attained any vast degree of knowledge or intellectual discipline, be the course of study through which she has passed most excellent. But, in view of the fact that a large number of girls, passing from our high schools, are destined to become teachers, ought not their studies while in the high school to be so arranged that they take away with them a thoroughness of scholarship, a mental development, which will, so far as possible, prepare them to devote their entire time, if they chance to enter a training school, to an intelligent study of those subjects deemed essential to a knowledge of the art of teaching?

What is the meaning of the effort being made by so many normal schools to get rid of the preparatory department? Simply that it is found that too much time and effort are being spent in *fitting* pupils to enter upon the normal course proper, in proportion to that given to the actual work upon that course. But there are few normal schools in the country that could exist were the preparatory department abolished. The training school, which might be called an abridged normal school, meets this same obstacle to progress, and has less power to overcome it. The entire course in training, including theory and practice, is generally crowded into one school year. The supervision of all practice-work and instruction of the class is often demanded of *one* teacher, and like the deaf and blind organ grinder, she mechanically through the year turns the crank for her pupils to the tunes of science, method, and practice, practice, method, and science, until the time comes when each pupil expects to receive her diploma and go forth

a professionally trained teacher—Heaven save the mark! Then the crank is moved a peg, and again the same merciless grind is begun. That even under this state of affairs much help is being given to the youthful and inexperienced aspirant to the teacher's honors, must be conceded; but considering what ought to be and might be accomplished were those who enter upon a professional course for teachers properly prepared, the result is deplorable.

It would be absurd to presume that a majority of those who enter either the normal or training school do so with a desire to gain either intellectual development or a knowledge of the science of pedagogy. Experience goes to show, pretty conclusively, that the chief aim of most such students is to pave the way to a position in the teachers' ranks, and to gain, in the meantime, as much familiarity as possible with the tricks of the trade. That this is true no one will doubt who will take the trouble to put himself in a position to hear the remarks of entering classes, or those individuals who, after completing such a course, fail to secure position upon first trial. But, it may be asked, has the scholarship or intellectual development of these pupils to do with such a condition of affairs? I believe it to be almost wholly responsible for it. In the first place, there does not exist, among people not directly concerned with educational work, an intelligent conception of the difference between teaching founded upon rational study of mental activity, and that which is purely empirical, mechanical. This ignorance is not confined, by any means, to those whose educational opportunities have been limited, or to the parents, or to those professing little interest in the subject, but is found as well almost universally in the minds of those who enter our training and normal schools.

Thus, at the outset, the teacher occupying such a position is met by a most difficult problem, viz.: How can I, in the short time given me for this important work, give my pupils a just conception of what real teaching is? How, in the face of current opinion and the pupil's own preconceived notions to the contrary, am I to establish *permanently* the truth that teaching is not a trade to be learned by a few weeks or months of study in a training school, by any who may from fancy or personal motives chance to elect it as a calling to be followed until something more desirable is offered? I know of but one way to solve this problem—open the mind's-eye of the pupil. By lecture, illustration, reading, and discussion, let in the light. The study of the history of pedagogy, of psychology and its application in method and practice, can be made most interesting, even to a youthful mind. But one might as well talk of colonizing the moon as expect to arouse enthusiasm or impart intelligence regarding the so-called dry subject of pedagogy to the average high-school pupil.

It has been asserted that good scholarship and intellectual stamina are the chief requisites of the pupil teacher. If her high-school course failed to give her these qualifications, one of four conclusions may be drawn:

either the course of study is faulty; or the teaching is poor; or the student lacks application; or, as is *sometimes* the case, she lacks mental ability.

Assume that the pupil is both capable and faithful.

No one would deny that the teaching freshest in the mind of a young teacher is an important factor in her own methods of procedure. If her teachers in the high school failed to give her clear ideas of things, failed to instill habits of careful, accurate observation, failed to cultivate habits of thorough, systematic, logical study, failed to impress her with the conviction that she has a certain individual responsibility toward whatever relations, assumed or otherwise, may be hers in life—then not much can be said for the training such teaching affords.

It may not be justly inferred from this that the standard of a high-school teacher's work is beyond attainment.

It surely is not too much to expect that a young woman eighteen or twenty-one years of age, who has taken a three or four years' high-school course, shall be able, when entering a training class, to read, digest and discuss intelligently an ordinary article on a familiar topic in one of the current periodicals, or that she shall be able to take such an article and write a brief abstract of it; that she should know how to prepare either a simple or elaborate analysis, whichever may be required, of a suitable theme for an essay ten pages in length, or that having such an outline, she shall be able to express her thoughts upon the subject in direct, clear, forcible, well-chosen language; that in preparing her lessons she shall be able to discriminate between the illustration and the thing illustrated, between generals and particulars, between important and unimportant points; that she shall be able to classify and arrange in logical order the subject-matter of a simple lesson that she may desire to present.

Not only are pupils found deficient in ability to perform such work, but, in the majority of cases which have come under my observation, they are also greatly lacking in knowledge of the subject-matter of what is known as the common branches. If it be true that such a state of affairs exists, where lies the fault—in the teaching of the course of study as it exists, in the course itself, or in both? For years—in fact, since as a young teacher I began to take an interest in the opinions of others regarding educational matters—I have heard a great deal of discussion regarding high-school courses of study. There was too much time given to mathematics, and not enough to language; too much attention was being paid to the dead languages, and not enough to the modern; somebody desired his children to have less instruction in classics, and more in so-called practical subjects;—and so on, through a longer list of grievances than I could name.

Here and there and nearly everywhere school boards and superintendents are trying to satisfy these grumblers by remodeling the course of study, without giving much thought to what these almost universal complaints signify. It seems to me that the whole trouble, from beginning to end, is

caused by a recognition on the part of parents and others of the fact that the great majority of high-school students do not possess thorough scholarship nor much intellectual discipline. The matter will never be righted to the satisfaction of anybody truly interested until those who are in authority act up to a recognition of the fact that good scholarship and a well-disciplined mind are not so much the result of having pursued this or that line of study as of the *manner* in which such study was carried on.

Were I able to do so, I would not be so presuming as to attempt to prescribe in full detail what particular studies I would omit or include in a high-school preparatory course, but some consideration may properly here be given to such studies as seem best fitted to promote the ends desired, as before set forth. Granted that a girl desiring to become a teacher must bring to the professional school an education to begin with, what shall be the nature of that education? Shall it be given mostly to the utilities, or to the enrichment of the mind in conceptions of literature, science, and art? Does the training gotten in a full classical high-school course have a clear and direct bearing upon a girl's work in primary or grammar grades?

Of the two courses, scientific or classical, supposing them to occupy the same length of time, which should be recommended to a girl proposing to teach? Perhaps a consideration of the last question would cover the ground of the other two.

The question, which has been argued since educational theories found an advocate and voice in man, viz.: Which studies are best suited to develop man's mental faculties—and thereby the whole man—the sciences or classics? has a direct bearing upon this question of ours. Probably there *still* exists a difference of opinion as to the relative merits, as a mental discipline, of the scientific and classical courses. But as to the actual, practical benefit, there is much to be said in favor of scientific study rather than the full classical course. It would be manifestly an injustice to those advocating the study of science as a means of mental discipline and culture equal to that given by a classical course, not to speak of the great advance in present methods of teaching the subjects of science in comparison with those employed even less than a quarter of a century since.

Harvard, Cornell, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Wellesley, Smith, Vassar, and others among the best institutions of learning for both men and women in this country, as well as the schools in Germany and France especially, are sending out over our country every year hundreds of well-prepared men and women to teach science in a manner which is beyond criticism—I say these teachers are *prepared* so to teach those subjects. The critical habits of observation, analysis, comparison, abstraction, and generalization that must be formed before one can arrive at correct or reliable deductions or inductions regarding his specimens in scientific study, the habit of looking at nature at first hand, not through the eyes of others from the pages of a book—as was the custom not so very long ago—is certainly a pretty safe means of caus-

ing mental activity of a sterling quality and of the sort so needful in every elementary school-room. Besides, the knowledge of these subjects counts for much more in a girl's preparation to teach, I believe, than the limited acquaintance with a few Latin or Greek authors which she can get in a four-years high-school course; not meaning, by that to disparage the actual, *practical* utility as well as mental value of a classical education. The natural taste of a pupil, even though she intends becoming a public-school teacher of elementary grades, should in a measure determine her course. For as has been before stated, culture, intellectual force, good scholarship, are the outcome of the *way* rather than the *what* you study.

In the attempt to cover a vast deal of ground in a short space of time, most high-school courses are too full, and as a result per-cents. and examinations are resorted to as a means of keeping pupils up to the mark, the offspring of which is poor scholarship, hazy, inaccurate conceptions of subjects studied, mental enervation. As a general thing, throughout the entire school-life there is a great lack in attention given to the subjects of English language, rhetoric, and literature. If language is on the program of the elementary schools, the children are treated to allopathic doses *about* language, and to homœopathic doses of the real thing itself. In other words they are given the science—so much of it as they can be wheedled into taking—and are steered pretty clear of coming into familiar relations with the art itself. Then in their rhetoric and English literature courses I have too often known the same method to be pursued. In fact, I have yet to know a high-school course that devotes the careful attention which it should to the proper teaching of English language in its various branches.

What other subject has more to do with development of power to understand the thoughts of others, spoken and written, to grasp the meaning in its fullness of the language of our best writers, to express one's self clearly, forcibly, plainly, logically? Is there a teacher within the sound of my voice who has not felt the painful lack of power in this one direction among her pupils? Practice in the art of writing and speaking is the only way known by which to learn to write and speak well.

If the study of logic and kindred branches were introduced into the high-school course at the expense of one or two subjects that are fruitful of less mental discipline, would not the student be the gainer? *Anything* that will develop power to think, to concentrate attention, and that with some *reasonable* degree of continuity.

In every high school that sends its graduates to its own city training school there ought to be provisions made for a thorough review of the elementary branches, under a teacher especially prepared to instruct in those branches, according to such methods as are fit models for use in the young teacher's future work; or the training school should have sufficient time given to its course to enable a pupil to secure such a review there. Usually,

however, that time would far more profitably be spent in study of methods and practice of the subject while in the training school.

If a training school is to train teachers, that material must come ready to study at once and intelligently the subjects properly belonging to such a school.

Pedagogy and its literature are not so easy for the experienced student and thinker that it can be profitably put into the hands of young, immature girls, who lack the mental development they are capable of possessing. But if teaching is ever to possess the dignity of a profession, if there is ever to come a time when throughout the ranks our work shall be done according to principles and laws governing mind-growth, the beginning cannot be too strenuously insisted upon with our young teachers.

There is no *time* in a training school for preparatory work other than that of a professional character, and until the training schools are supported upon that basis by our high schools they lack the power to exert that influence upon the teaching force of a city for which they were primarily organized.

PROCEEDINGS
AND
ADDRESSES
OF THE
DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

WASHINGTON HALL, SAN FRANCISCO, July 17, 1888.

The Department of Higher Education met at 2:30 P. M. In absence of other members of the Executive Committee, the section was called to order by T. H. McBride, of Iowa.

On motion, Horace Davis, of California, was chosen President *pro tem*.

The fifth order on the programme was by motion taken up, and a committee on nominations, consisting of W. F. King, S. H. Peabody, and Miss Vest, appointed.

The report of the Committee on "Requirements for Admission to College, and for College Degrees," was called for. W. F. King reported, that owing to the death of one member of the committee little had been done, and asked continuance of the committee; and that the vacancy on the committee be filled. By motion, the committee was continued, and the President instructed to fill the vacancy.

The regular programme was taken up, and W. T. Harris, of Concord, Massachusetts, read a paper on "Philosophy in Colleges and Universities." Geo. H. Howison, of the University of California, opened the discussion. Subsequently, in response to questions, Mr. Harris gave his views of Theosophy and Buddhism; likewise of the connection between science and philosophy. Mr. Howison then reviewed the paper at some length, generally speaking in the direction of commendation, defining the position of philosophy as related to other sciences.

In the absence of I. J. Manatt, Dr. Shelton introduced the topic, "The Place of Religion in Higher Education," urging that Christianity and Christianity alone should form the foundation of all higher education; that Christianity alone could furnish such basis. S. H. Peabody, of Illinois, discussed the same topic, alleging that in all our higher institutions of learning, religious exercises are of necessity a part of the culture and education offered; that the desire to free institutions from all influences of a sectarian character does not necessitate the exclusion of Christianity, for Christianity is no sect.

In response to questions, Dr. Shelton defined what he believed to be *true* Christianity—belief in God, and Christ as the Saviour of the world, etc.

After general discussion of the topic, the section adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

The Department of Higher Instruction was called to order by President Davis.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was presented and adopted, and the following officers were elected for the year following:

President—S. H. Peabody, of Illinois.

Vice-President—Geo. H. Howison, of California.

Secretary—T. H. McBride, of Iowa.

Wm. C. Jones, of Berkeley, being detained by illness, his paper on the topic "Higher Instruction on the Pacific Coast: History," was read by W. W. Deamer, of the University of California. W. T. Reid, of Belmont, California, opened the discussion of the paper, presenting more particularly the history of the denominational colleges of the Pacific coast, and the influence of these schools in the general community, with suggestions looking to greater efficiency in the work of such colleges, even in religious matters. J. T. Benton followed, sketching the origin and history of the Pacific Theological Seminary. On invitation, S. H. Willey spoke briefly on the general topic, stating the reasons why the College of California was in 1867–8 merged into the University of California, and affirming the necessity of the Christian college; and Geo. H. Atkinson gave some account of higher education in Oregon.

Horatio Stebbins, of California, presented a paper on "Higher Instruction on the Pacific Coast," devoting himself to a definition of higher education. The paper and topic were discussed by C. C. Stratton, who likewise animadverted on the first paper, alleging its incompleteness as not giving proper credit to the many colleges of the State of California.

A. S. Cook and J. B. McChesney, of California, presented the case of the high schools and their relations to the higher education of the time.

The Department then adjourned.

T. H. McBRIDE, *Secretary*.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

PHILOSOPHY IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

W. T. HARRIS, CONCORD, MASSACHUSETTS.

In this paper I shall not undertake to furnish the statistics of courses of study in our colleges, nor to discuss the trend of philosophic instruction in view of such statistics. I shall assume rather, that the present trend in higher instruction is to undervalue philosophy and its methods; and accordingly I shall endeavor to show that philosophy is indispensable to any and all courses of higher instruction. I shall also endeavor to show that philosophy is the most practical of all studies because it furnishes the will-power or the executive personality of the soul with the results of the intellect, (or the discursive power of the soul.)

I.

I ask your attention first to a brief statement of the nature of philosophy and its method, in order that we may see clearly its relation to all other departments of knowledge, and hence all higher instruction.

Philosophy is that science, if we may call it science, which investigates the ultimate presuppositions of existence. It seeks a First Principle of all. Accordingly it sets out from any given fact, thing, or event, and begins at once to eliminate from it what is accidental or contingent and drop it out of consideration. All sciences deal in unity. They unite phenomena in a principle. If they have become genuine sciences, they find for a principle a definite causal energy which unfolds or acts according to laws. These laws express its nature or constitution. A science that rests on mere classification has not yet arrived at a true scientific form, because it has not yet shown how its general principle produces its details and applications. Such an imperfect science reaches merely subjective unities—mere aggregates of things or events more or less independent of each other.

The word process names the important idea in science. All the material of a science should be united in one process. For a process, it is clear that there must be an active cause, and its operation according to a fixed method.

Keeping in mind this consideration of special sciences for a moment, we may notice that all science discusses presuppositions, and that philosophy is not the only knowledge of presuppositions. Given a thing or event, science proceeds to discover its antecedents and consequences—in short, to find its place in some process. This investigation on the part of science aims to learn the history of the object—which is a thing or an event. Its history

reveals to us its former states and transmutations; in other words, the activity of its energy or cause by which it has come to be.

The true method of science, it is pretty generally conceded now, is the historical one—the method of discovering one by one the antecedent stages of things or events, and learning by this means the nature of the principle that reveals itself in the process.

This method of natural science points towards philosophy as a sort of science. For, that there is a general scientific method implies that all the sciences are related one to another through some universal underlying condition so that all objects must have antecedent conditions, belong to processes, and have their explanation in principles. This underlying condition in which all objects find their unity is time and space, and all sciences presuppose the possibility of a science of time and space.

Time and space, as explained through the idea of Causality, furnish ultimate science because it explains how the special sciences get their form. It is ultimate science or Philosophy, too, inasmuch as it shows Causality as transcending time and space and it discovers this form of absolute or independent Causality to be Mind or Reason—self-conscious, absolute, personality.

Such ultimate science shows the place of each and every thing or event in the system of the universe, and reveals its origin and destiny. It explains things and events through the self-revelation of the Absolute Mind.

At this point we must note that philosophy does not affect omniscience, no matter how much the above statements may seem to imply it. Philosophy does not inventory anything whatever; it explains only what is furnished it—something being given in a definite manner, philosophy will discover one by one its presuppositions and find its place and function in the absolute system. If the thing or event is not so far defined by one of the special sciences that it can be referred to any one of their principles, then only a very vague utterance about it can be made by philosophy. If it is only a thing or event, and it is not said whether it is animal, vegetable, or mineral, or some activity of one of them, then only the vague dictum can be pronounced that it arises somewhere in the creative process of the absolute; or, as religion states it, "It has arisen in the wisdom of God's Providence," and we are sure, in advance of all examination of the thing or event, that it has a place and a purpose. If the thing or event is defined as a plant or some activity of it, we can speak more definitely and predicate of it what philosophy has discovered in regard to the place and function of vegetation in the world.

I repeat, for the reason that philosophy does not inventory any facts or events, but assumes them as thus inventoried by other sciences, it cannot be accused of affecting omniscience. It is in fact a special department of human knowledge, and requires special study and investigation just like other departments.

Here we encounter another great word in this dispute as to the place of philosophy, namely, the word specialization. We are told that specialization is the principle of all progress; that philosophy deals with ultimate unities and therefore can make no progress. All progress comes through inventorying anew some minute province—division and subdivision are best because the minuter the field the more completely and exhaustively it may be inventoried. Philosophy, it is said, is the enemy to this specializing and inventorying; it is content with any results that are handed to it, and manages to deal quite as well with imaginary things and events as with real ones. It can explain equally well the unicorn, the phoenix bird, the polar bear, and the kangaroo.

For the reasons we have mentioned, namely, that philosophy does not inventory nor reduce to subordinate scientific unities, we must admit the validity of the objection in so far as it condemns philosophy as unfit for a substitute for any one or all of the special sciences. It is true that philosophy can explain one fact as well as another, and just as completely as said fact is offered or presented to it by one of the special sciences. This does not, however, render the explanation empty and void, any more than a mistaken prophecy invalidates the religious doctrine of Divine Providence.

Another objection urges that the nature of philosophy as here set forth seems to assume that philosophy has only one form, or that all its forms arrive at an absolute Personal Reason as ultimate principle. Whereas, there are many philosophies and divers first principles. To this objection it must be replied that all philosophies do imply this personal first principle, although they do not all unfold it as the presupposition. To make this clear, it is only necessary to state it generally. Every philosophy sets up a first principle as the origin of all, the cause of all, and the ultimate destiny of all. Let such principle be called x . Then x is assumed as originating all through its own activity, and hence x is a self-activity. Self-activity is what we call living, in an intelligent being, when we behold it.

II.

Let us now notice the utility of this reference of things to a Supreme being—in other words the utility of philosophy. Philosophy is the form of thinking which is exercised or employed whenever one closes a train of reflection and resolves to act. Deliberation belongs to the intellect—it holds action in suspense until it shall get a complete survey of the subject. Such a survey implies an inventory and an act of systematizing. But by the nature of the case an inventory of an objective sphere can never be completed by reason of the infinitude of its details. Each detail can be subdivided again and again. If the will waited and held back its action until absolutely all the data were in, it would never act at all. The deed would be “sicklied o’er with the pale cast of thought.” What is necessary is this: the inventory must be stopped and all the facts must be assumed to be in

hand. Then they must be summed up, and their trend and bearing ascertained. This being done, it is now in readiness to act. All action of the will assumes that the inventory is completed, and that the ultimate bearing of the data is known. Hence all practical action deserts the scientific or discursive form of thought and puts on the philosophical attitude, assuming its survey to be a complete and absolute one.

With this insight into the relation of the philosophical attitude of the mind to the practical will-activity, we may now demonstrate the utility or even the necessity of philosophy as an indispensable branch of Higher Instruction.

III.

The object of all instruction is said to be self-knowledge. Admitting that there is a discrimination between two selves—a finite self and an infinite self—this proposition may be admitted. Then, it would mean, that all instruction has for its object the consciousness of the relation of the finite self to the infinite self; or, less technically, the relation of man to God and God's universe.

The occasion of all human activity, moreover, is some relation between the individual and the universe, or the Author of the universe. It is evident that the ultimate ground of action must always be a moral one, therefore, because the motive—express or implied—must always be some relation to God, or to God's purpose in the universe. Now these relations are defined in only two ways—by religion, or by philosophy—or only in one way, inasmuch as religion always grounds itself and its mandates in theology.

Higher instruction differs from lower instruction chiefly in this: Lower instruction concerns more the inventory of things and events, and hence has less to do with inquiring into the unity of things and events; higher instruction deals more with relations, and the dependence of one phase of being upon another, and it deals especially with the practical relation of all species of knowledge for man as individual and as social whole. Such relation, it is admitted, is ethical. Now, since the doctrine of the ethical rests on the nature of the first principle, and philosophy is the investigation of that principle, it follows that philosophy—express or implied—must be the basis of Higher Education.

It is singular to note how exactly this is true, even in those colleges and universities where agnosticism prevails. For agnosticism is a world-view founded on philosophy. It is, so to speak, an arrested development of philosophy, for it is a world-view adopted by cutting short the philosophical process near the beginning.

Insight gets so far as to see the unsubstantiality of material things in time and space; in other words, all such material things are "phenomenal," or dependent on something that transcends their sphere. At this point the doctrine is negative only—it ends in negating the substantiality of the material world, and denying its finality. The real and substantial is something

that transcends, but it is not said positively what it is. Like the "persistent force" of Spencer, it may be called an "unknowable," or an "ultimate unknowable." It makes forms and swallows them up again through the changes of time. Itself is no form, no thing, no special force. Hence it is negative, and the thinker calls it the "unknowable."

This standpoint is pantheism. Pantheism is objectionable as a world-view because it denies personality to God, and likewise denies immortality and freedom to man. But pantheism is not the legitimate or logical outcome of philosophy. If one moves forward to the logical conclusion, he reaches affirmative ground, and arrives at theism. For persistent force implies self-activity as its true nature, inasmuch as the persistent force is not correlated with any one or with all of the particular forces—heat, light, electricity, magnetism, gravity, etc., but it is the foundation of all of them, and they arise through its energy. It is self-related, or self-active, and hence it is of the nature of life and mind—absolute and infinite. It is absolute, because being self-active it does not depend on anything else for its manifestations, or constitution. It is infinite because it is self-limited, or, in other words, it makes its special limitations—the particular forces (heat, light, etc.)—by its own act, instead of receiving a check through another being outside of it. It is not limited by others, but only self-limited—it is the absolute creator of its particular forces. Thus, even the agnostic doctrines taught in the schools under the influence of Lewes and Herbert Spencer are only premature or unripe philosophies—even their own doctrines pointing toward theism.

Hence the present decadence of philosophy in schools is only apparent, and not real. It is simply the Avatara of pantheism under a new form—the form of mental incapacity to comprehend what is already defined to be the negative of all attributes. Such an Absolute is easy to comprehend in fact, because there is nothing left in it to be comprehended. By its definition, abstraction has already removed all distinctions from it, and left nothing in it of a determinate nature; if reflection finds anything to think in such an Absolute, it must supply what it thinks from its own store of ideas.

It is clear from this that there is a philosophy presupposed in those schools, and that it is a bad philosophy because it is a pantheistic philosophy—a revival of Orientalism.

In this theory of pantheism there lie coiled up all the principles opposed to our civilization. The history of the past two thousand years is one unbroken contest between pantheistic survivals from the oriental world and the new spirit of Christianity. There has been always a tendency to lapse back into some doctrine that denied the divine-human nature of God, or the individual immortality of man, and set up fatalism in the place of moral freedom. But the church has always had the clear discernment to condemn as heresy all such doctrines. Mohammedanism was the most formidable bearer of this spirit of the East against the spirit of Europe and

the West. Charles Martel and afterward the Crusaders defeated its armies in the field, while Thomas Aquinas and the Scholastic Theology defeated its intellectual heroes, and established the doctrines of a truly personal God against an abstract Unity as the First Principle.

It is the true function of our higher education to defend and preserve this precious doctrine in our time; and in no way can it be done except by teaching a thorough-going philosophy which traces out the presuppositions of matter and mind to their ultimate implications, and discovers Personality in the Absolute, and immortality and freedom in man. For these ideas alone make possible our civilization.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF HIGHER EDUCATION ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

WM. CAREY JONES, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA.

We may take the widest meaning of the Pacific Coast, but when we come to enumerate what may be called, by any standard whatsoever, institutions of higher education, we find ourselves restricted to the Territory of Washington and the States of Oregon, Nevada, and California. In these, accepting the criterion of the authority to confer degrees, we find the higher learning represented by twenty-two institutions, styled universities and colleges. The more high-sounding title is usually preferred. As will be seen later, I am not prepared to accept this authority to confer degrees as a valid basis for the claim to be an institution of higher culture. Judging the claim by other criteria, it will be seen to what extent these twenty-two universities are reduced in number. But for the moment accepting this standard, we find these degree-conferring institutions distributed as follows: In Washington two, in Oregon six, in Nevada one, and in California thirteen. Three of these are styled State Universities, chartered, perpetuated, governed, and partly supported by direct legislation of the state. Of the remaining, several are under Catholic control; the others, with one exception, I believe, are under the management of some one or other Protestant sect; and the remaining one, supported by private endowment, intended to reflect no sectarian preferences, still not entirely divorced, as the state institutions are, from positive religious direction.

All of these twenty-two, with the exception of the Catholic colleges and one other, admit men and women equally to a full participation of all their advantages. The one, non-Catholic, exception to this rule, a college recently enlarged from the seminary, devoted solely to the education of women, opens the fair promise of a soon fully developed Vassar, Smith, or Wellesley, in quiet seclusion near the Bay of San Francisco.

One other institution, already chartered and potentially endowed, is disclosed to the foreseeing eye as containing within its undetermined future all the possibilities that can be achieved through possession of wealth. But our present view being wholly retrospective, the unventured life of this University cannot engage our attention.

The history of our higher education is divisible roughly into three periods:

1. The period of incipient ideas on the subject of higher culture; of preliminary discussion and legislation; of attempts, mostly abortive, at founding institutions; of such starts as were actually made, and of the preparation of a body of youth in intention and intellectual equipment for the pursuit of a college course: the period from 1849 to 1860.

2. The period of potential beginnings; of the maturing, and enlarging, and systematizing of ideas; of the commencement of something worthy of the title of higher education, and the establishment of the University of California: the period from 1860 to 1870.

3. The period of the expansion of institutions already founded; of the multiplication of colleges, and of their growing influence, and of the increasing interest in the cause of higher learning; the period of the broadening and strengthening of all the factors of education, and particularly of the development and enlargement of the University of California: the period from 1870 to the present time.

Among those who settled in California prior to its occupation by the United States and the discovery of gold, there were some men of liberal education. There were some few, both college-bred men and others, who, when it came to the times of political organization and social adjustment, in 1849 and 1850, thought, at least occasionally, that to build for the future and for all time, they must do something other than merely mine and trade. To these were added many—the majority—who were first and above all Argonauts. While these latter had, it is true, been led hither by the lure of gold, that quest did not wholly blind them to the demands of organized society. They comprehended, perhaps not too clearly, and not always with tenacious persistency, that a *state* was to be formed, and that the basis of the American state was a good education for all, a high and elevating education for many. And among these seekers after gold there were many who knew before they left their distant homes that there was more to be found and produced in California than the gold that lay in the mountains. The books that had been written before 1848 had told of the beauty of the country, of its diversity in climate, soil, and scenery, of its commercial and agricultural resources, of its capacity to supply all the needs required for homes of peace and comfort and culture. It was these pictures that had inspired the hearts of young men, and reinvigorated the limbs of older men. They sought this land, and after a little while began to build and plant. And these were, many of them, men of ability and men of liberal learning.

And so soon as the attention of the community was turned to the settlement of an established and permanent society, they bethought themselves of the need of a common-school system, and, prospectively, of a fitting crown to this universal sub-structure. The Catholics, of course, waited not upon legislation or endowment: they availed themselves at once of their strongly compacted system, and established as a part of the church the college of Santa Clara. So, too, various Protestant denominations did likewise, and founded institutions of more or less advanced instruction. But there were those who said, Let there be a State University; and these made themselves felt immediately, to the extent at least of making provision in the State constitution for such a university. There were others strenuous for the necessity of a pervading religious idea in a college, and opposed to state control of higher learning, who nevertheless desired to establish a college on a basis as broad as the fundamental notions of Protestantism.

I do not believe that this idea of a religious, non-sectarian Protestant college was ever anywhere fully carried out for any length of time in practice, but the principle was well stated in the organization of the College of California; and it was a significant and important attempt in this direction that was made on the shores of San Francisco Bay. This idea was put forth in conversation and correspondence so early as 1849; it was fully conceived in 1853, when Rev. Henry Durant arrived in California and planted, in Oakland, in the form of an academy, the germ of the University of California. The idea was fostered by the efforts of many thoughtful and devoted men of the State, and by the diligent encouragement and labors of Rev. Dr. Bushnell. The idea was realized when, accepting the first fully-prepared little group of students, the College of California was opened, in 1860, by Professor Henry Durant and Professor Martin Kellogg. In the three decades, now almost completed, the chief pioneer of higher learning in California, the one whose name will be connected with all the transitions in the progress of the college idea to its culmination in a university founded on the broadest principles and accomplishing deeds of widest influence and widest good, will be Professor Martin Kellogg.

The extinction, after a troublous career of eight years, of the College of California, and its merger in the University of California, is one of the deeply significant events in the history of education during the nineteenth century. It is an instance of the inevitable surrender of all truly university education from private and ecclesiastical control to the unbounded resources of the state. This college filled an important place because it was the outcome of the earliest non-Catholic expression of the want and necessity of a higher form of instruction. It was important because it reached, during the course of its existence, the highest grade, covered the broadest grounds, and filled the largest sphere, among the colleges in California. It was important because it was the predecessor of the far larger and greater institution of the University of California. Its administrators wisely saw, or were wisely

persuaded to see, that its career of widest usefulness would be in a surrender of its property, duties and aspirations to the state, on condition that there should be coupled with the agricultural and mechanical colleges about to be organized high courses of humane studies.

I do not see how, in California, in 1868, it would have been possible to have laid the foundations of the most generous culture, if it had not been for that existing embodiment of the college idea. This old College of California filled well and worthily, as others then did and since have done, its appropriate sphere. It was doing work similar in kind and quality to that then and now done by hundreds of other colleges in the United States. It took honorable rank among the old-style colleges. But its noblest act, one worthy the imitation of these hundreds of other institutions, was in confessing its own weakness and insufficiency, in admitting that the extension and diffusion of knowledge would be promoted best by a sacrifice of itself. Here was a college, organized on the old lines in respect of curriculum, but somewhat more liberally than was or is usual in respect of religious tolerance. The state, in consequence of the Congressional endowment act, was about to take action for the erecting of a mechanical and of an agricultural college. A union of the two ideas was urged, and was shortly consummated. A center, a heart, of humane, philosophic culture, of vitalizing, inspiring force, was thus given to the new institution. A basis that might be extended to the utmost breadth of human knowledge was laid. And upon this the state, through its agents, proceeded to erect such studies and courses of study as the condition of learning in the community and the immediate resources of the University would allow.

The direction which was taken from the first in the organization of the University of California, was to arrange the studies in definite groups, or courses, or colleges, under separate faculties. What has since taken place has been but the natural development of this plan. At the center is the humane course, with its studies in philosophy, language, literature, history, mathematical, physical, and natural science, ever widening, redistributing itself into other groups, and at the same time moving on to a rapid, practical consummation of a regulated form of that system which to-day is most nearly attained at Harvard University. Grouped about this, the spiritualizing center of the University, with its allied courses of coördinate rank, are the various technical colleges, themselves already numerous, and capable of indefinite increase. Falling very far short of the highest standard attainable, we have reached a point but little below the highest so far achieved in America.

The candid historian must set forth the limitations that have been imposed upon the attainment of an advanced grade of scholarship. He must state any evil and inauspicious tendencies that may have manifested themselves, and the influences that may have worked against the upbuilding of a university of high standard and widely operative in its effects. He can

perform his duty in this respect with a somewhat easier heart when he reflects that the era upon which we now seem to have entered discloses a larger and juster appreciation of what constitutes higher culture, than ever heretofore.

The multiplication of sectarian colleges and their increase in power during the last two decades is not necessarily a sign of an increased demand for the higher forms of instruction. The actual condition and character of the instruction offered by them would seem to indicate a very different state of things. There is a field of usefulness for these institutions if they would modestly accept their appropriate and peculiar place among the disseminators of knowledge and the instructors of youth. But assuming, as they too generally do, to occupy a plane equal to, or morally and intellectually higher than that which is in the possession of only the greatest universities of this country, they degrade culture, they debase the aspirations of the young men and young women, they obstruct the advancement of civilization. While the leading half-dozen universities in the United States show constant dissatisfaction with their own high standards, and even question their own claim to the title of "university," these supplemental high schools both assume, with perfect self-complacency, this title of "university," and unhesitatingly proclaim themselves the best and safest promoters of the idea of scientific and literary learning. The natural aggressiveness of these institutions has done much during the last twenty years to prevent a popular appreciation of the higher education. But that which has most largely lent apparent strength to the lesser colleges and has stood in the way of the wider influence of the higher, was the resulting effect of a provision of the constitution of 1879.

Up to 1879 the State of California had a *system* of public education, beginning with the primary grades and culminating in the State University — a system which, if not absolutely coherent and perfect throughout all its branches, was approximately so, and was essentially perfectible. While the constitution of 1879 contained many admirable improvements on the older constitution, it had also features which were pernicious and destructive. Among the former, in intention and spirit at least, we must count the provision which guaranteed the perpetuation of the University in its integrity. Alongside this provision was another which peremptorily closed the pathway which had formerly connected the lower and upper fields of the state's educational domain. The constitution, which recognized the University as founded on the most generous principles and open to every qualified person in the state, and left the legislature free to endow it as munificently as they chose, constructively denied free access to a majority of the youth of the state. By this prohibition* of the use of the state school fund and state

* Constitution of California, art. IX, sec. 6: "The public-school system shall include primary and grammar schools, and such high schools, evening schools, normal schools, and technical schools as may be established by the legislature, or by municipal or district authority; but the entire revenue derived from the state school fund, and the state school tax, shall be applied exclusively to the support of primary and grammar schools."

school tax for the support of high schools, most of the high schools then existing were compelled to close their doors. The effect upon the higher education was two-fold. It resulted in reducing the number of students in the University, and in degrading the standard of scholarship in other colleges in the state. The University having then passed through the first phase of its existence, and having organized the education of the state, was taking the necessary steps for raising its requirements for admission. After much deliberation it determined that the only course compatible with its office of imparting the highest instruction, was to adhere to its declared intention. However few in number might be the students who had the talent and courage and energy to overcome all difficulties, they had a right to demand when they reached the University that they should receive *university* instruction. The lesser colleges, on the other hand, were obliged to abandon many aspirations they might have had, and, taking up in some measure the rendered work of the state, to devote themselves to high-school instruction, with perhaps a collegiate addendum. The State University saw coming to its doors a diminished number of students, it is true, but a body so vigorous, and so determined in purpose, as to justify it in maintaining the position it had taken, and even in advancing gradually its grade of scholarship still higher. This course it has persistently pursued. It regretted that it drew its students mainly from the larger cities, that the young men and young women from less populous districts had to travel so difficult and laborious a path to the higher education. Yet, while we must regard the state as willfully remiss in its essential duty, there has been some compensation in the high aims and strong purposes and manly conduct that have characterized the 300 undergraduates who have been in tolerably constant attendance on the University courses.

This number, 300, has represented the full proportion, perhaps somewhat more than the proportion, that might reasonably have been expected from the schools which have offered adequate collegiate preparation. The communities from which the University has drawn its students and those from which other colleges in the State have drawn theirs have generally been different. The students at the University, for the most part young people of very limited means, have come mainly from the larger cities, and some of the more thickly settled counties—Santa Clara county, however, being a noteworthy exception. To this body are to be added those persons who, living remote from all educational advantages, have fought their way, inch by inch, to the goal of their ambition. The other colleges have a local and sectarian constituency. Their students come from the locality where the college may be situated, and from districts where collegiate preparation is not obtainable. This preparation these “colleges” must themselves furnish. The consequence is, that among their “students” are reckoned—besides “collegiate”—“academic,” “sub-academic,” “music,” “normal,” “commercial,” “elocution,” and others.

There are signs, resulting from this state of things, of both good and evil augury. The immediate effect of the constitution of 1879 was to lay prostrate all the high schools of the state, except those of San Francisco and Oakland. The result of this was visible in the student-body of the State University. In 1877 fully fifty per cent. of the students received their collegiate preparation in places remote from the Bay, while in 1881 not five per cent. did so. On the other hand, the stimulus of the University has acted on local pride and energy, so that high schools, which are doing work up to the highest standard, have been reorganized, and are now entirely supported by local taxation in Sacramento, Stockton, Alameda, and even little Berkeley; and other less wealthy and less populous communities are striving earnestly to establish suitable courses of intermediate instruction.

The duty of the state lies clear. This duty is to revise the article of the constitution referred to; to make provision for thorough high-school instruction, and reöpen the public highway to the State University; *to reestablish a system of public education.* The state should make it mandatory upon all cities and school districts of a given population to maintain a properly organized high school. The state should appropriate funds for the support of such schools. It should provide for a board of visitation whose duty it should be to require these schools to conform to a proper uniform standard. The state would then be providing not only, as it does now, for the municipal financial support of the University, but for an even more insistent duty, a high form of instruction for the many who cannot or will not seek a university education. The state would at the same time afford to every ambitious boy and girl within its territory the opportunity to gain the highest learning possible.

The most important material event in the history of higher education was the action of the Legislature of California in providing a permanent endowment for the State University. The funds of the University before that time were derived from endowments made by the United States Government, by the State of California, by the College of California, and by private benefaction. The State endowments aggregated over \$800,000, national endowments nearly an equal sum, private benefactions over a million dollars, while the University site of 200 acres, University buildings, etc., were of about a million dollars' value, the whole aggregating nearly four millions. Of this, a sum approximating two million dollars was interest-bearing, and furnished the income of the University. The Legislature, in its session of January and February, 1887, realized that this was not a sum sufficient for carrying on a great and rapidly-expanding educational institution such as the University of California, and that its further support ought not to be left to the uncertainty of biennial legislative appropriations. This Legislature, then, made itself memorable in the history of higher culture by passing a law which gave to the State University the proceeds of an annual tax of one cent upon each one hundred dollars of value of the taxa-

ble property of the State. This means that *for the present year* the University will receive some \$82,000 in addition to its former income, making its total revenue for the present year over two hundred thousand dollars. It means, furthermore, that the income of the University is to increase in direct proportion to the increase in the wealth of the State. A magnificent future is thus promised to education in its highest forms, to the study of science and art and literature in their utmost researches and results. We know that tendency of the human mind and of human wealth to place its confidence as well as its investments in that which is safe and permanent. If then to an institution which had neither age nor prestige, had but a small and mainly youthful faculty, restricted curriculum and few graduates, private citizens of not the greatest wealth have donated over a million dollars, what may we not expect from private munificence to an institution with a learned, active and progressive faculty, with curricula expanding into every field of knowledge, with a body of graduates coming to the front in every department of public and private enterprise and usefulness, an institution upheld and sustained by the support of every property-owner in the State of California?

HIGHER EDUCATION.

HORATIO STEBBINS, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

I have been requested to address you on *The Higher Education*. I am by the rules of the occasion confined to thirty minutes.

What is the Higher Education? It may be that there is some confusion in regard to its true meaning. The comparative degree that is used to express it would seem to convey the idea that it is simply more of the same kind, and that if we make education five stories high, it is *The Higher Education*. There is a common notion that there is only a difference in degree and not in kind, that Education is Education, and that more of it of the same sort is Higher Education. I do not understand it so. The Higher Education is different in kind from that which is often called education, and is a kind in itself. It starts from a center of its own, revolves in its own orbit, and all lesser theories are epicycles that ride its deferent. It is not professional education, nor technical education, nor is it peculiar to any grade of school. It may be carried on in the primary school, and it may be utterly wanting in college. I understand by *The Higher Education* that training which contemplates man as a *being* and not as an *instrument*. While it acknowledges all the aptitudes of nature in the individual, it builds up the mind on those great universal human exercises which are like the husbandman's preparation of the soil to receive the sun and the rain. It is human training in distinction from special training. Its object is setting supreme value

upon man himself on his own account, to kindle his nature, intellect, ~~heart~~ imagination, conscience, so that into whatever special course his path ~~may~~ run, he will ever be more a man than anything else, and his *life* will ~~over~~lap his livelihood, and a free capacity of true human powers will stretch beyond the limitations of special vocation or the bias of peculiar employment.

Let it not be supposed that the higher education is based on universal scholarship. Neither is it grounded in little, mean, piddling, quibbling knowledge, without logical faculty or imagination. We count a man educated in proportion to the exactness, breadth, and nobleness of his ideas. What is needed to elevate, refine, and give power to man's nature, is *not* that he shall be an encyclopedia, but that he should have great ideas based on knowledge and thought. Studies and thought inspire the mind, if they are brought into relation with a mind that responds to their touch. And just here we come to limitations that set bounds to the higher education. There are men whose studies do not awaken their minds, whose minds ~~are~~ not living powers, but receptacles of knowledge. There are those who ~~fail~~ to gain great ideas from any source. The limitations of constitution ~~seem~~ to settle that, at least in this sphere of existence. Do we not know ~~men~~ with minute and accurate knowledge of history, who have no conception ~~of~~ history, of freedom, of national character, of the progress of the world, ~~of~~ the power of human genius and will? Do we not know theologians by ~~profession~~ who have a kind of village-moralist view of the world, a place where ~~three~~ three roads meet, with a country tavern, grocery-store, blacksmith-shop, and a meeting-house? A competent judge has said that among scholars true ~~scholarship~~ scholarship is about as one to an hundred. So there are scientific men ~~of~~ great breadth of knowledge united with poverty of thought. And the ~~poet~~ poet, be he botanist, or geologist, or astronomer, is a fly in a cathedral. "~~Let~~ him receive it that is able to receive it."

The limitations that are set to the higher education by constitution ~~are~~ nothing more nor less than the gulf between the practical and the ideal. In their extremes they are an impassable gulf. Peter Prim, to whom

"A primrose by a river's brim
A yellow primrose was to him,
And it was nothing more,"

could never receive the higher education, were he to live through the longest time allotted to man on earth. All great and true education must unite the practical and the ideal. We applaud practicability, and we do well; but let us understand what we mean. Practice follows thought, and the steam engine is a realized imagination. Observation of things, reasoned order of facts, and poetic insight, are the motions of the trained mind that has come to consciousness under the higher education. Mere practicability, left to itself alone, is of all things most bereft. In my schoolmaster days, a man came to me to talk about the studies appropriate for his son. He

hed to give him a practical education; and he added that in his opinion, um in arithmetic that would cover both sides of a slate was enough for boy. But I have heard another who talked about sending his son to college, and asked what gain it would be in the practical business of life; and on one other idea came into his mind, and that was, that if his son should, the money that he paid for his education would be lost! Rude as these stances are, they touch the key-note of the economic theory of education, which is that man has no credentials that entitle him to a respectful reception, and no destiny.

The Higher Education is practical and ideal. Its ideal quality will be received by those who are able to receive it, as poets and philosophers see the beauty and truth of the world. This is its distinctly human quality, that makes the man more and more what he is by his essential nature, and assigns him his rightful place in the ranks of being. It is human training in distinction from professional or technical training. There are three things that characterize the untrained mind: Inability to deal with facts separate from men; inability to judge of evidence or proof; or to understand what is said, if you depart in the smallest degree from the range of his daily thoughts. Nothing can deliver a man from this trough of the sea but those that universal studies, which under some form or other, overlap special education, and give him free capacity and will.

This, then, I understand to be the higher education: It is that training which, while it prepares the way for special vocation, is yet wider than special vocation, overcomes the bias of professional employment, and makes man a free denizen of the world of things, facts, reason, and imagination. It pertains to his life as a being, in distinction from his livelihood as a creature, and stretches away and afar upon the horizons of destiny, beyond the special field which he cultivates. It is essentially poetic, and idealizes the real. Men are able to receive this higher education in different degrees, according to their endowment—some in a very feeble degree, some in matchless power. It avails little to undertake to draw definite lines here. The great fact that the minimum of human faculty is very small, and the maximum very great, is enough. It may be reasonably questioned, however, whether a man who looks upon a meadow of waving grass, and buttercups, and daisies, in June, simply as so much hay, can receive the higher education in this world. He may be instructed, but he cannot be educated.

What are the methods of this greater education? I cannot discuss the same, for if I were able, the flying minutes will not allow it. If I can flash a suggestion it will be enough.

This education must follow the order of the development of the mind. The nature and order of the mind are its plan, drawn by the Master's hand. What is the discussion, or the matter of contention, between literature and science as instruments of human training? What is the contention between mathematics and philosophy? The real pith and quick of it is, that we

get half-truths into our heads, and think they are whole truths; and then, awaking to a sense of the awkwardness of the situation, we try to put the two halves together, under the impression that two halves make a whole the world around, till we find that one half is the half of an apple, and the other is the half of a pumpkin. The two halves do not come together, and we learn by our blunder that living truth differs from apples and pumpkins in this respect: that two half-truths do not make a whole truth. Truth is a unit—a whole, that has many sides, but no halves, and no pieces. It is not made; it is grown, developed, inspired. This great education consists in following the plan of the mind, as sketched by the Master. What is the first intellectual motion of the human being? Follow that line along its course, note the points of divergence and departure, things, facts, reasons, feelings, imaginations; they belong to the being, and to cherish them is education. There is no contention in the child's mind as he discriminates between one dog and two dogs, compares the size of the balls he rolls, asks who made the moon, listens to the story of Jack and the Bean Stalk, the myth of Samson, or the birth of Buddha—when lilies bloomed to greet the steps of the advancing god; there is a unit of powers from one root, from one life.

There is a story told of the bishops and their traveling retinue, as they went from all quarters of the Roman Empire—from Alexandria and the Pillars of Hercules—to the Council of Nicæa. They traveled with horses and chariots and mules and camels. They believed that their journey bore the seals of destiny, and that their arrival was written in the book of fate. Some wits who did not believe that all these things were destined to be fulfilled, thought to stall the caravan that went up from Egypt, and thus defeat the revelation. They took the bishop's mule, as he was staked out at night near the camp, and split the beast in two along the line of the vertebrae after the manner of the shambles. In the morning the caravan was ready but whereon should the bishop ride? Prolific in resource, a miracle was wrought, and the mule was put together; but, by mistake, one half was inverted, and two legs were on the ground and two in the air. Yet the beast was ready, and seemed to share the enthusiasm of destiny. The bishop mounted, and traveled that day, the animal changing two up to two down, now and then, for conservation of force. But the next night another miracle was wrought—the animal shook himself, the two halves came around and stood on all-fours, the journey was completed, and the prophetic destiny was fulfilled. The contention between mathematics and philosophy, between physical science and literature, often seems a modern counterpart of the trick played on the bishop's mule.

It would seem, indeed, that there could be no controversy as to the question of the higher education; that it must in the very nature of human nature include the study of physical nature and humanity. The results of a training exclusively literary have long been manifest; and the results of a train-

ing exclusively scientific are beginning to appear. One thing, however, at the outset of all true education of the better sort, is plain: amidst the multiplication of studies, it must be held a pestilent heresy and a mere makeshift that a youth should study only what he has a taste for. Study is work, and any teacher or institution that gives any other impression has no right to be. Almost all minds are, to use a nautical phrase, a little crank, and need to be trimmed. The higher education should prepare a man to know something of many things, and everything of something. Those studies that especially are cramable should be rejected. I understand by cramable studies, those that may be pursued by committing words without any meaning or law. We learn to think by thinking; and the twelve gates of the temple of truth are opened by one key, and that one key is the power of active thought.

It is no part of my purpose to enter upon a discussion of comparative studies. There is, it seems to me, some confusion, and in provincial minds some conceit, about what is called exact knowledge; and the nature of the evidence with which we have to deal in the different departments of study is often exaggerated. The area of "certainty," as it is called, is surely much smaller than some people think; and human life and experience are not made up of the demonstrable, the exact, and the definite, but of judgments, opinions, probabilities, presumptions. "We walk by faith and not by sight" is as profound philosophy as it is pure religion. Life is more poetic than mathematic; the apprehended plays a larger part than the comprehended; and if we had nothing but understanding, we should understand very little. Science means right knowledge of what is; and it comes in many ways. The mathematics must ever hold a high rank in human studies as an instrument of the mind. As a training they are limited to one kind and one degree of evidence. They have no part in forming the judgment. Those who are ignorant of the real nature of mathematics think them to be the key of all reasoning, the perfection of training. But they no more teach reasoning in the common, every-day sense, than riding in the cars over Siskeyon mountains teaches the miner to thread the forest on a mule. It is of great importance to understand why we set a high value on particular studies and methods. The area of demonstration, as it is called, is much narrower than we sometimes think. It is Virchow, I believe, who says that mathematic demonstration is but an infinite probability; and that is a scientific way of stating the school-boy's proof of addition: "Look over the sum and see if you are right." And Stuart Mill says that for aught we know, in some other sphere three and two may be seven.

Of all the gifts with which men are endowed, the highest is the poetic faculty; and second only to that is the historic sense. The first sees truth as it is in its own eternal beauty, and copies its pattern to adorn and glorify man's estate. The second sees the world of things, and brings unfolding in

fair consentaneous procession, as "through the ages one increasing purpose runs." All great education, culture, learning, thought, verge toward this.

"No bar the spirit world hath ever borne—

It is thy thought is shut, thy heart is dead:

Up! scholar, bathe unwearied and unworn

Thine earthly breast in morning's beams of red."

THE STATE UNIVERSITY AND THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

A. L. COOK, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA.

I am to speak, as my contribution to this discussion, upon the relations which should exist between a state university and the public high school. My general thesis will be that the connection should be intimate and organic.

1. *The High School needs the University.* The university represents, or should represent, philosophical education. By this is not to be understood an education in philosophy, but such a mutual adjustment of prescribed studies as is dictated by the higher ends of our being, and such a range of elective studies as will give opportunity for the widest possible outlook on life from various selected eminences. It being presupposed that the university has thus fixed the character and scope of both prescribed and elective studies, with due reference to the ideal possibilities of human nature, to the permanence and perfectibility of society, and to the various functions to be discharged by the commonwealth and its agents for the general good, the high school, which in one sense stands nearer to the people, has the less difficult, but still responsible, task of appropriating these ideas, and endeavoring to realize them in their application to the more concrete and everyday problems of common life. It is frequently said that the high school is hampered by its direct dependence upon the people, and upon time-serving politicians. That this is not universally, and perhaps not generally, true, is evinced by the large number of excellent high schools to be found in every part of our land, the most of which are in process of constant improvement. But even were it true that the high school fails to reach its utmost efficiency through this cause, it is no less true that the lack of public appreciation is frequently owing to its misdirected efforts—to its failure to grasp the problem of education in all its length and breadth. The lower institution has a constant tendency to drag down the higher with which it is connected. The pressure put upon high-school principals to admit insufficiently prepared pupils from the grammar schools, must be counteracted by a pressure in the opposite direction, gentle and equable, but firm; a pressure which shall

effectually prevent the degradation of the high school, by insisting upon higher standards of admission, of daily attainment, and of graduation. The tendency to convert the high school into a mere upper-grade grammar school, with the same subjects taught in essentially the same way, or into a vast polytechnicum, where a smattering of everything is imparted, to the neglect of thoroughness, and the consequent failure to establish solid bases of character and achievement;—this tendency in the direction of mere repetitiousness or superficiality, must be resisted by the wise and just demands of a real higher education, such as the properly constituted university will represent.

Every high-school principal and teacher should welcome an organic union with the university, because the university is usually the more stable institution of the two, being established by the state for permanent and far-reaching ends, which contemplate the moral and intellectual upbuilding of generations yet unborn; and in this stability every high school gains a share in proportion to the intimacy of its relations with the university. Considering the fluctuations of municipal politics, this stability is no slight boon to the people at large, whose real interests should be jealously guarded by those whom they have appointed to positions of trust, though they themselves should become temporarily unmindful of these interests.

The grammar-school teacher should likewise rejoice in the establishment of such relations, since they facilitate a similar union between these schools and the high school, with similar advantages to be gained therefrom. The grammar-school teacher thus obtains security against sudden and unwise innovations at the caprice of some new head, and tenure of office for faithful service, with corresponding advancement for superior ability, or in the regular course of promotion, is more effectually assured. He is made to feel that merit will be more certain of recognition, that everything is to be made subordinate to the quickening of his pupils' faculties, and their preparation for the more advanced work that awaits them later in their course, and that he who best succeeds in enabling his pupils to sustain with honor the searching tests to which they are to be exposed in future, is sure to be singled out for higher honors, and more rapid advancement. What is true of the grammar school might be repeated, with slight variations, for the primary school.

This reasoning is based upon the fundamental fact that man's progress in the things of the spirit, without which material civilization is either impossible or a curse, is based upon two things, at bottom essentially one: Aspiration and Reverence. "Excelsior!" was the motto of Longfellow's youthful hero. "Something beyond!" is the war-cry of all men whom the world denominates successful. It is the watch-word of those whom we call ambitious, and whose ambition we must deplore; but it was also the watchword of such an one as Paul—"This one thing I do: forgetting those things which are behind, and reaching forth unto those things which are before, I press toward the mark for the prize of the high calling." Aspiration, therefore, is one-half the

equipment of him who, in the higher sense, is to attain success. The other half is Reverence. Our souls demand something to worship, and the more exalted it is, the purer and more fervent the worship. Hear the rival parties shout the names of their favorite leaders, and then doubt, if you can, the instinct and need of worship in the human breast. The combination of great intellectual attainments with lofty and lovely character will always awaken the sentiment of reverence and loyalty, and this sentiment will in turn breed imitation. Aspiration is comparatively vague. Its goal is undetermined — oftener abstract than concrete. Reverence, when it has found its object, has in that object a model. "Let me make the ballads of a people, and I care not who makes its laws," said a wise man of the seventeenth century. We might amend that by saying: Let me select the ten men and women whom the American youth of this generation shall admire with all their heart, and the next generation will have touched the verge of the millennium.

Now, applying these considerations to our immediate theme, is it not apparent that in such a graded system of schools, from the primary schools to the university, there is afforded full scope to these two conjoined sentiments, that of Aspiration and that of Reverence, and therefore the healthiest possible stimulus to all the spiritual energies of the child and youth? Aspiration alone tends toward overweening self-confidence and conceit. Reverence alone might generate excessive timidity and conservatism, but in the interplay of these two mighty forces along the ascending scale just indicated, there will certainly be struck out sparks of a generous and self-propagating magnetism. Take these away; make the grammar school an end in itself, with no outlook beyond; the high school the same; the university the same; and you engender at once sluggishness, unproductive individualism and aloofness, and barren pride. I have intimated that Aspiration and Reverence are as necessary in the university as elsewhere, and in every real university they will be found. Reverence is taught for the master-souls of the ages, for the contemporary leaders of thought, so far as they are really such, and for other and more excellent schools of learning. Thus Aspiration and Reverence cease nowhere throughout the course. The ultimate goal recedes as the student advances, in accordance with the laws of the human spirit. This is as it should be. But the great motive forces remain ever the same.

2. *The University needs the High School.* Without students a university cannot exist, or can only exist as an academy, an institution of endowed research. It not only needs students in actual attendance, but it needs a body of devoted alumni, surrounding it with love and awe, and these alumni must first have been students. It needs channels through which it can make its influence felt; men and women in every town and village who watch its doings, discuss its policy, lament its decay or retardation, and work vigorously for the extension of its usefulness. Primarily, therefore, it needs to

fed, not merely from ever-flowing springs of pecuniary beneficence, public and private, but with the most precious life-blood at any time circulating in the commonwealth.

It may be said that it should depend upon private schools to recruit the ranks of its students. In reply, I would say, it should indeed welcome the promising students sent to it by good private schools, and should even lend its influence to the establishment and fostering of such schools. But, from the fact that it is itself a public institution, its chief concern must necessarily be with public education in all its branches. It stands as a bulwark of political freedom within the bounds of law and amid the checks and counterchecks of complete social life; it advocates entry upon the full prerogatives and responsibilities of citizenship; it is a conservative force where profane and violent hands would overturn the ark of the covenant, or tear in pieces the charter of our liberties; but, on the other hand, it is the agent of progressive enlightenment, seeking to incorporate new elements of strength and righteousness into the fabric which successive generations are toiling to rear, and to perfect. In other words, it seeks to widen the horizon of civic manhood, if that phrase be permitted to me, and to place it in full possession of its rightful inheritance. If so much be conceded, it will be evident that the sphere of the university in this respect is coëxtensive with that of all other agencies seeking the same end, and that it is more closely allied with such agencies in proportion to their definite constitution by the same authority for the same general purposes. Now there can be no question that our whole public-school system is established by the state with the primary object of making good and intelligent citizens. It would, therefore, be strange if the highest institution established for this purpose should not be nearly akin—in fact, most nearly akin—to the other agencies established by public authority with the same object.

In these public schools education is free; in the university it is also free. At first blush this may appear like an unimportant coincidence, but a moment's reflection will convince us that, in both cases, learning and wisdom are freely offered in order that the existence of a free state may be perpetuated, and that the blessings of such temperate and regulated freedom may be insured to our latest descendants. Is it going too far, then, to assert, that however it may and should seek to cherish and encourage all education, and every humanitarian project, the prime interest of a state university must ever be in the public schools—that is, in the other state or municipal instrumentalities of the same general character and intent as itself?

3. *The Public needs both the High School and the University.* This follows, without further remark, from the positions already laid down. The nurseries of high intelligence, pure and commanding character, and incorruptible public spirit, should be able to reckon on hearty support and appreciation. If, professing to be this, they come far short of their great mission, the people

should insist upon their being transformed until they answer the purposes of their creation.

This leads me to two or three resultant practical conclusions which cannot well be spared.

First, if the university is to take the lead in educational matters, it must be properly manned. Buildings, grounds, museums, equipments of every sort, do not insure wise and efficient leadership. The ordnance and quartermasters' stores furnished the armies of the Civil War did not win the victories. The winning of victories requires, before everything else, trained, skilled, active, and courageous manhood.

Secondly, if the university is in any manner to prescribe or suggest the subjects and mode of education in the high school, it should insist only upon those subjects, methods of instruction, and proficiency in each branch, which the union of theory and experience shows to be, on the whole, of the greatest public utility. If it assumes to shape in any degree the educational policy of a state, it should proceed in an unprejudiced and impartial manner, and summon to its councils the wisest minds of the present and of every age. And, finally, if either university or high school is worthily to discharge its sublime functions, it must remember that character, no less than knowledge, is essential to the idea of citizenship. It will present to its pupils the noblest incentives, hold before them the noblest examples of patriotism and personal virtue, and strive to fashion them in the spirit, if not according to the letter, of Milton's lofty dictum: "I call therefore a complete and generous education, that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously, all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."

HIGHER EDUCATION ON THE PACIFIC COAST: NEEDS AND PROSPECTS.

C. C. STRATTON, MILLS SEMINARY, CALIFORNIA.

While Bishop E. O. Haven was President of Michigan University he wrote in his journal, that if he were to begin life anew and should decide to devote himself to the education of the young, he would choose the field of college preparatory training as the most important and fruitful of valuable results.

From fifty to seventy-five years ago the Methodist Episcopal Church put forth its most vigorous efforts in the cause of education in the maintenance of conference seminaries, another name for institutions of preparatory grade. And though this great religious denomination is aspiring to found a university in every state in the Union, many of its leaders question

er its earliest work was not its best. These facts are cited for the purpose of showing my appreciation of the importance of preparatory education. These citations are from the East. If true there, we shall find them more applicable to California.

great need of higher education in California is of an adequate founda-

years ago, and before the adoption of the new constitution, the state was a unit. Now the common schools terminate with the grammar school, and leave an almost impassable gulf between their highest grades and the lowest college classes. Provision is made in a few of the leading cities for bridging this gulf, but at this point the state system in most places is very defective.

On the other hand, the founders of private institutions are ambitious to endow them with college or university powers, leaving the lower field still vacant.

Hence, all of these institutions are compelled to prepare their own students for the higher classes, and with most, if not all of them, this comprises from four-fifths to nine-tenths of their work.

The colleges and universities in name can never become such in fact until under them is a more complete system of preparatory education.

The next need is felt in the failure of our young men to appreciate the value of higher education. The utilitarian view pervades all classes. The young men stop at the grammar grades. Three-fourths of all high-school graduates and nine-tenths of all normal-school graduates are young women. Best brains will hold the reins of power, and if matters continue to progress in this direction it will become necessary to organize Men's Rights Societies, to guard the sterner sex against the encroachments of woman's superior mind.

The greed for gold and for material gains brought the Argonauts to these shores, and they have begotten children in their own likeness.

A few sessions of this National Educational Association among us would be a powerful antidote to this intense materialism. The prominence given to discussions and papers to the intellectual and spiritual elements of the human nature, sound wonderfully novel and very refreshing to the advocates of intellectual culture.

Nevertheless the prospect is not entirely discouraging. Such benefactions have recently been made by Governor Stanford, by Dr. and Mrs. Leland Stanford, by Dr. Cogswell, and others, to the cause of higher as well as preparatory education, evince the strength of the conviction which some of the aided and full-hearted have in favor of the cause which lies so near the heart of the most enlightened educators, and these institutions which are being founded, by the very intellectual stimulus which they impart will work a corresponding interest in those classes for whom they have been established.

PROCEEDINGS
AND
ADDRESSES
OF THE
NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

'SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SARATOGA HALL, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July 18, 1888.

The meeting was called to order at 2:30 P. M., by the President, S. S. Parr, Indiana, who delivered the annual address.

Joseph Baldwin, of Texas, then read a paper on "The Distinctive Work of the Normal School."

The discussion which followed was led by Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota, and participated in by Jerome Allen, of New York; M. A. Montgomery, of Mississippi; F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri; and Ira G. Hoitt, of California. The President appointed the following committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year: Cyrus W. Hodgkin, Indiana; Mary J. Titus, California; and H. E. Sprague, Minnesota.

The Department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19.

The Department met in the same place on Thursday, July 19, and was called to order at 2:30 P. M.; the President in the chair.

A letter was read from Thomas J. Gray, of Minnesota, chairman of the committee on Methods of Instruction in Use in the Normal Schools of the United States. This letter stated that circulars covering part of the ground named in the instructions to the committee at the Chicago meeting of 1877, had been issued; that returns had been received from most of them; that the committee had not been able to tabulate the material in hand, nor to complete the inquiry in time for the San Francisco meeting; and expressed hope that the material now in hand, together with what may be further secured, will be a substantial addition to this line of educational research. In motion, the Chicago committee, consisting of Messrs. Gray, Boyden, and Rounds, were appointed to continue the investigation, and report to the Department at the meeting of 1889.

Cyrus W. Hodgkin, of Indiana, and Lucy M. Washburne, of California,

then read papers on "The Subject-Matter that Properly Belongs to the **N**ormal-School Curriculum."

These papers were discussed by William T. Harris, of Massachusetts.

Charles H. Allen, of California, then read a paper on "The **T**rain^{ing} School as an Adjunct of the Normal School." Mary E. Nicholson, of **I**ndi^{ana}, opened the discussion, which for lack of time was not further contin^{ued}.

Thomas H. Kirk, of Wisconsin, read a paper on "The Relation of **t**he Normal School to the Academic Schools."

The discussion was to have been opened by John Swett, of **C**alifornia. In his absence, the paper was thrown open to general discussion, in **w**hich George L. Farnham, of Nebraska, John W. Cook, of Illinois, Charles **H**. Allen, of California, and others engaged.

B. A. Hinsdale, of Michigan, prepared and sent a paper on "Pedagogical Chairs in Colleges and Universities." Mr. Hinsdale being absent, and **t**he time being short, the paper was not read.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers presented the following report:

President—Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minnesota.

Vice-President—Lucy M. Washburne, San José, California.

Secretary—Ellen A. Williams, Framingham, Massachusetts. ; **SECRET**

Report adopted. Department adjourned.

ROSE C. SWART, *Secretary*—

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

THE NORMAL-SCHOOL PROBLEM.

S. S. PARR, GREENCASTLE, INDIANA.

The most important problem in the advancement of education is the provision of efficient means by which the schools shall be supplied with trained, intelligent, and self-directive teachers. This need transcends all others. Our elaborate system of superintendents, our grades, curricula, school-books, institutes, conventions, normal schools, reading-circles, text-books, and teachers' manuals, are intended to supplement one or another deficiency which the teacher entails from lack of intelligence and self-directive power.

NATURE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The normal school is to the teaching profession what the law school is to law, the medical school to medicine, or the school of theology to the ministry. As such it is a special institution devoted to professional training.

We cannot, therefore, reasonably admit that the teachers' training school is an academy, high school, college, practice school, methods school, or review school. If the comparison be between kinds of work, it is neither a better nor a worse school than other schools, since each is good in proportion as it serves its purpose. If the normal school, when it develops out of its present immature form into that of a completed institution, realizes its purpose, it must have a chair for each academic subject of which its students study the method; and have chairs of educational psychology, general method, the history of education, and the philosophy of training; the whole to be supplemented by a practice school involving all grades of work, under the direction of skillful specialists who become critic teachers, interpreters of the underlying philosophy of training, and directors of the work.

What the teacher must be is determined by the nature and needs of the training process. This is generally conceded to assume the form of growth or development by means of the self-activity of the pupil. The teacher furnishes the aims or ends, the various stimuli that occasion the activity, and the direction for it when aroused. These limits require the roundly-equipped teacher to possess several qualifications:

a. Personal fitness.

b. A good academic knowledge of subjects.

a. The teaching-knowledge which is derived from viewing the various subjects in the order fixed for them by their nature and by that of the mind which acquires them.

d. Knowledge of the process of development under the stimulation of the teaching-act and the function of the several faculties, acts, and products, and of the successive phases of mental growth.

e. An understanding of method as the scientific application of the means of stimulation to the ends of development.

f. Acquaintance with the historical development of pedagogical principles.

g. A comprehension of the science of mind as an energy, and of that of mental growth and mental stimulation.

h. Such an acquaintance with the art of teaching as a reasonable experience will give.

The paramount question in the scope of the work is the relation of the normal school to academic instruction. We are generally agreed that it should not give training of merely academic quality. But the facts which confront us overturn our theory and make such work its leading feature. This is, in some measure, a necessity of the situation. All teaching-knowledge must be preceded by a thorough acquaintance with the subject-matter taught.

If the pupils who come to normal schools already knew the various academic subjects there would be no necessity for instruction of this kind. But they do not come with this qualification, and, in their present environment, these schools cannot, by any inducement they can offer, secure pupils provided with academic training. They must, therefore, see that deficiencies of this kind are supplied.

It is futile to talk of filling our normal schools with college graduates as pupils. It is not done in England and Germany, where the conditions are infinitely more favorable than here. Such persons do not go into teaching as a business, except in small numbers. The few who enter it become teachers in high schools, colleges, and superintendencies, into which they are permitted to go without special training. Normal schools must, therefore, look elsewhere for their pupils.

THE ACTUAL NORMAL-SCHOOL PUPIL.

The majority of persons who enter such schools have had only the training of country, mixed, or village graded schools. The minority have various degrees of better preparation. Both classes need more academic training. They need all they can be induced to accept. The weakness of normal-school graduates in scholarship is chiefly traceable to their unwillingness to remain for anything except the most meager amount of preparation. The statistics of the Northern Illinois Normal School show that 72 per cent. of those who enter stay less than one school year.*

Normal schools are not, therefore, subject to stricture because they do academic work. The regret is that they cannot do ten times as much. But they are open to serious criticism because they do academic work of a low

* Report of National Educational Association, 1887, p. 489.

grade and are content to do almost nothing more. After all, the academic preparation they give so far outweighs the professional element that the latter has very little influence, except in an imitative way.

THE KNOWLEDGE MOST DISTINCTIVE.

The distinction between academic knowledge of subjects, and teaching-knowledge of them, is vital. If it does not exist, there is no reason why the preparation of teachers should not be turned over to colleges and their chairs of didactics.

An analysis of the process of teaching shows that there is a special knowledge in each subject that belongs to instruction. This is quite distinct from academic knowledge. It differs from it in purpose, in its relation to the facts in things, and in the mode by which it is obtained. The ideas of an academic subject are arranged in an order which is determined by their own relations. The order of the same ideas when they are arranged for teaching, is determined by their relation to the learning mind. The purpose of academic knowledge is acquaintance with series of beings in the order of their necessary dependence. The purpose of teaching-knowledge is acquaintance with the processes of the learning mind in the order of mastery. The one is the product of ordinary consciousness; the other, of that form of reflective consciousness which we call introspection. The one is general, the other special. The process of ordinary learning is a single process; that of the teacher's study of subject is double. In the former, one thinks a series of objects; in the latter, he not only does this, but re-thinks his own thinking.

Ordinary knowledge may be likened to a tourist's acquaintance with a road over a mountain pass. The traveler goes up one declivity and down another. Here he barely has room between a yawning abyss and a frowning precipice; there the road lies over a swaying bridge suspended like a cobweb between heaven and earth. Rough ledges and rocky corduroys are succeeded by slippery clays and oozing springs. Vegetation flourishes, declines, and disappears. Every step presents its difficulties, its dangers, and its incitements.

Teaching-knowledge may be compared to that of the guide. He is acquainted with the road in the same way that the traveler knows it, but an hundred-fold better, and, besides, can direct the steps of him who trusts his skill, safely from starting-point to finish. He knows where it is safe to ride, and where one must dismount. He understands how to avoid other travelers where the road is too narrow to either pass or turn around. He can tell how many each bridge will safely bear, and what wraps are necessary in the chilling clouds at the summit. In short, he is acquainted with the route as a series of connected paths, causeways, and bridges, and, in addition, knows how to direct another quickly, safely, and economically over it.

The importance of this distinction warrants another illustration. An

academic knowledge of geometry involves ability to think the preliminary conceptions of magnitude and limit; of the kinds of limit—point, line, surface, and solid; and of the various classes of these things. Upon such conceptions, the mind rests its ideas of the relation and measurement of straight lines and circles; of proportional lines and similar polygons; of the comparison and measurement of the surface of polygons; and of the isoperimetrical and symmetrical relations of regular polygons and circles. The series of ideas constituting plane geometry are the foundation for the conceptions of solid geometry, embracing the relations of planes and solid angles; of polyhedrons, cylinders, and cones; and of the sphere and its relations.

One may be said to know geometry in an academic way when he is able to think this series of conceptions in the order of their dependence, and see clearly the relation of each one to all the others.

Upon this academic foundation, the study of the method of geometry gives, as its results:

- a. A conclusion as to the algebraic and arithmetical conceptions conditional to the science.
- b. The dependence of ideas within the subject itself. In the academic study the ideas are acquired in logical order, without special attention to it.
- c. How far this logical order of ideas is susceptible of change.
- d. What amount of change within the subject is necessary to meet the wants of the learning mind.
- e. Lastly, the faculties employed in the production of the series of conceptions, and the order in which they must be brought into action.

SPECIAL METHOD INVOLVES ALL OTHER EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE.

The study of special method involves every other didactic subject. It is the culmination of the science of education, so far as instruction is concerned. It is founded upon educational psychology, and involves an acquaintance with the principles of general method. It requires the side-lights of the history of education, and its broad comprehension demands the substantial background of the philosophy of training, and the enlightenment which is dependent on experience in the school-room.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY NOT GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY.

Every science which brings light to the method of particular subjects is a particular science.

Educational psychology is commonly interpreted to mean the study of general psychology, with stray observations about children's minds. This is perhaps the best we can do, but it must be regarded as a temporary condition of the subject. The training given in this branch of study must have a special character similar to that knowledge of mind which becomes ground for the analysis of the physician antecedent to his treatment of mental diseases, for the study of the lawyer concerning particular cases of

insanity, or for the particular ethical investigations of the minister. Educational psychology is, in like manner, the subject which arises from applying the principles of general mental science to the explanation of the conscious process of development. The teacher must have such acquaintance with the conceptions, feelings, and impulses of childhood and youth as will enable him to put himself in the learner's place, and at the same time retain his logical view of the subject and of the workings of his own faculties. This knowledge is highly special, and is possible only on the condition that one has made a study of the process of growth itself, under expert direction.

A fair beginning has been made in the study of conscious development. Darwin, Taine, Perez, Preyer, Beneke, and others have entered upon the examination of children's faculties. Many investigators, in Germany and France, have made more or less fragmentary contributions to this field. Few of their results are available in English, and if all of them were made so they would be insufficient.

SPECIAL METHOD, (BUT NOT "METHODS.")

But little has been done in the exact study of the method phase of the training process. About all available on the method of the mind's unfolding are Rosmini's Principles, and parts of Beneke's and Sully's Psychologies. Herbart, Froebel, Curry, and those devoted to kindred subjects, have written, but their thought is either too general or too empirical to be highly useful. What is done, if it be of value, must be done with the careful observation and induction of the scientific spirit. A sufficient series of monographs on special subjects would enable us to have suitable text-books on educational science. It is not too severe a criticism to say that the ones we have constitute the most discouraging feature of normal-school work.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL IDEAS.

The knowledge of the teaching process is incomplete until we have traced its historical growth. As intelligent an educator as James Wilderspin spent years in inventing the numeral frame, when a slight acquaintance with the history of educational devices would have taught him that it had been discovered by the Romans, and by two or three other nations since their time. What is true of a mere device may as well be true of any other element of training. Present education is in part the product of the past. The former is unintelligible without the latter. We can avoid the mistakes and profit by the discoveries of the old through an acquaintance with its history. There is, besides, a broadening influence in the study of the history of education which becomes a positive power, and the progressive teacher needs to drink deeply of this inspiration.

GENERAL METHOD.

The science of general method, as a systematic arrangement of the principles which govern the adjustment of the means of instruction to the ends

of growth, is yet to be created. The normal school cannot rest content with the present use of devices. Their lack of unity is indicated by the name, "methods." They do not rise above the level of the art, and are therefore on too low a plane to be regarded as the scientific knowledge of the means and ends of training. Devices are not to be condemned *per se*. They have their place. So does also the higher principle which renders their use a matter of insight, and not of imitation. Special method is intelligible in proportion as a rational science of its principles is possible. Acquaintance with devices does not come within the scope of instruction, but is properly acquired from the practice of the art. And unless they are so acquired, and their application illumined by an understanding of their governing laws, they may as readily hinder as help. The process of enlightening them by principle is the proper subject-matter of normal-school instruction in method.

TRAINING IN THE ART.

Practice teaching is the means by which the pupil-teacher comes in contact with school-work. Whatever limitations our present environment puts upon us, it seems plain that ultimately normal schools must afford facilities for imparting a familiarity with the art, equal to that attempted in the science of education. Indeed, may we not say that all instruction in the science, in advance of some familiarity with the art, is instruction *in vacuo*? The pupil-teacher must practice in such a way as will give him that acquaintance with the art which will "concrete the abstract" in his knowledge. The amount of practice for different students varies according to individual needs; but it must be enough to give a freedom of action in class-teaching corresponding to that which arises in a science, from mastery of its ideas.

The representation of what ought to be is perhaps a more pleasant task than sketching what actually is. But each is incomplete without the other. He who does not raise his eyes to the ideal will perpetually grovel in the dust of expediency; on the other hand, a neglect of practical considerations defeats whatever reforms are attempted.

PIONEER NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Fifty years ago the normal-school idea was transplanted from Germany to the United States. Our schools have had to develop little by little, as their German prototypes had done. The principal thing the founders of the American normal school brought us, was the idea that there should be a special school whose function is to give teachers that training which the academic schools cannot give. The mode in which this germinant conception should take body was left to the development of circumstances, and to the definition which the needs of our system of education should indicate.

The first normal schools organized in this country were experiments. They were fairly good high schools, of their day, with a hint at psychology and other subjects thought to be necessary to the teachers' training. Nine-

teen-twentieths of their curricula were academic. Their admirers claimed that they did work better suited to the wants of teachers than their academic contemporaries. This could not have been so much due to a small ingrain of talk about teaching, as to the attitude of mind engendered by a special purpose.

The pioneer schools mark the point at which the normal school, as a special and professional training institution, began to separate itself from schools of general purpose. From their initiation to the present, it is fair to believe, progress has been made. At times the rate of movement has seemed so slow that it required to be measured by methods akin to the lines of stakes by which the yearly flux of a glacier is marked.

Although half a century has elapsed since the idea was dropped into the soil of this country, the normal school, as now realized, is such *in posse* rather than *in esse*. The report* of Professor Gray, presented to this Department last year, showed indisputably that scarcely a single feature of normal-school work is generally agreed upon. Forty-seven terms were used to designate various courses of study, ranging from Greek and Latin horizontally through law, medicine, art, surveying, bookkeeping, and almost everything else. There is equal diversity of opinion about what constitutes method, psychology, observation, practice-teaching, and the use of kindergarten training schools.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL STILL AN ACADEMIC SCHOOL.

These facts are evidence that the teachers' professional school is still in the midst of a struggle to differentiate itself from the academic schools out of which it arose.

The present status is further evidence of this truth. In idea, the presidents or principals of these schools are experts in teachers' training; in fact, they are head-masters promoted from academies or high schools, whose knowledge is of the academic type, or they are superintendents who have fallen above their class, or are ex-college professors, or finally, members of the 'third estate'—those who have one foot in politics and the other in the school-room.

In possibility, the professors of the several chairs in a normal school are specialists of a high order, who are experts in giving that new view of the subject which is the necessary antecedent of the conscious teaching of it; in actuality, the teachers in most of them are young people, often lacking experience, who are not above the average teacher in the middle third of our high schools.

In theory, the student entering the normal school is a master of the academic knowledge he is to teach, and comes to its halls to acquire a distinctive training not to be found in any kind of academic school; in fact,

* Report of National Educational Association, 1887, p. 473.

the great bulk of students who enter the normal school in this country are not more than sufficiently qualified to pass the test of a good eighth grade.

Nor is it any better with the curriculum of such schools. It should be as distinct from the curricula of general schools as those of law, medicine, and theology. In fact, alas! the Briareus-handed curricula of schools calling themselves teachers' training schools read like attempts to swallow everything done by academic schools, besides a farrago of "didactics," "pedagogics," or whatever else we shall call it.

BUT, STILL NOT FAILURE.

That all these things and more are true of the normal school of the present, is not so much its fault as its misfortune. No institution springs full-fledged into existence. Growth requires time. In this country every class of schools must have the support of the masses of the people. The normal school has not only had to develop its aims and work, but to educate the common people concerning the value of trained teachers, and in the necessity of supporting schools devoted to their training.

Professor DeGarmo stated last year, at the Chicago meeting, that to supply the schools of Illinois, at the present rate of change per year among teachers (about 20 per cent.), would require one hundred and forty normal schools. As there are only one hundred and seventy-five schools in the whole country, these figures show what a numerically trifling factor such schools really are. In comparison with their number, the influence of such institutions in elevating the teachers' calling and educating the people has been great.

When normal schools began in this country and England, teachers themselves were, with little exception, strangers to the idea of special training, and not the least of the results attained by them is the broadening sentiment among teachers in favor of professional culture.

We are yet very far from the educational millennium, but enough milestones of progress have been passed to lay aside the use of the normal school as an agent for itinerant work in civilizing our population to comprehend that an unlettered and ignorant person is unfit to become a trainer of youth. Instead of longer making this its chief function, it should address itself to the direct problems of professional training. No one can reasonably doubt that normal schools yet need to do missionary work in educating the people, in educating the teachers themselves, and perhaps in doing hospital work on the weaklings who throng their classes to seek relief from the heavy hand of the examiner; but these things ought to be made secondary to the problems that are distinctive of the process of training.

Perhaps no deficiency is greater than that of a well-defined purpose. Want of a clearly apprehended aim gives rise to numerous types of normal-school work that retard the progress of the institution.

VARIATIONS OF THE NORMAL-SCHOOL IDEA.

One of these is the normal school which seeks, as its distinctive feature, excellence in academic work.

Normal-school principals and teachers are still found who claim that their schools have a right to exist because they do *better* work than other kinds of schools. One of our state superintendents praises, as the distinctive feature of his normal school, the fact that it teaches *things*, while other schools teach only *words*. This view recognizes no distinctive difference between the teachers' professional school and other schools. According to it, the normal school rests on no idea which it can call its own.

Another type is that which holds that this class of institutions is to methods what Eolus' cave was to the winds. They are *loca feta methodis*. No one will reasonably deny that making, gathering and distributing devices form a legitimate part of their work. But we think it may be justly objected, that this is a subordinate and not a principal function. There can be little doubt that the present unreasoning craze after "methods" is traceable to the impetus given by the normal school.

Still another type of work is that founded on the idea that the distinctive province of the teachers' training school is the furnishing of practice schools. It is this view which leads the English and Scotch to call their normal schools "training colleges." We find one of their leading principals* arguing that the normal school must remain distinct from the university, because the latter cannot maintain a training school of a thousand children! We may be sure, that if the normal school stands on such sandy foundation it must soon have its basis undermined, and its superstructure appropriated by chairs of didactics and other means of training.

Equally wrong is the type of work which is founded on the conception that the normal school is a review school. This makes an accidental weakness of the pupil's previous work its foundation. All review that is not a new view is a process of patching on other patches. It is a confession that the skill of the teacher is not sufficient to hold the pupil about a subject until it has been thoroughly mastered. Accidents of teaching like this effect their own cure, and the removal of the need for review, by better work, sweeps away all necessity for review schools, and thus leaves the normal school without any foundation in fact.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS FINAL AND COMPLETED FORM.

The correction of these weaknesses and abuses is a negative duty that the normal-school idea has abundant vitality to do for itself. We shall have, when this evolution has progressed to the extent of complete differentiation from other schools, a vigorous institution, filled with life from the fountain-head of distinct purpose, and able to take rank in work and in results with the best professional schools. In reaching this goal, the teachers' training

* Dr. David Ross, Dundas Vale Training College, Glasgow: "Fifty Years of the Training System."

school will have so perfected educational science that its psychology will be based on the application of the laws of mind to an interpretation of the process of growth under stimulation. Its method will be distinguished into general and special, and purged of the flood of devices which properly belong to the art. These will not then be the staple they now are under the name of "methods." Both kinds of method, instead of resting on some one's *ipse dixit*, will find their illuminating relations in "the law of the mind and the fact in the thing." The history of education will transcend the character of a register for births, deaths, and anecdotes, and become a philosophic exposition. The science of the nature of mind, of development, and stimulation, and of aims, tests, and the relation of the powers of mind to kinds of education, although it crowns educational science, will not be called by the contradictory and impossible name of Philosophy.

In that halcyon day, of which the normal school gives promise and potency, purely academic work will be done where it belongs, and teaching-knowledge of subjects given by specialists in their academic knowledge, and in educational science. Then the science and art will each receive its distinct recognition, thus insuring a ten-fold increase in the use of the training school, and ten-fold more certain and systematic knowledge of what its real uses are.

To these ends let us all pledge ourselves anew, with belief that they will be realized, even while the faithful wait.

THE DISTINCTIVE WORK OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

JOSEPH BALDWIN, HUNTSVILLE, TEXAS.

Teaching is the art of promoting human growth. Schools and teachers are products of civilization. The teachers of the past centuries, with few exceptions, were uncalled and unsent. Each worked alone, nor even dreamed of education as a science and teaching as an art. The normal school is a school for the education of teachers. The schools of the prophets among the Hebrews, and the schools of the priests among the Egyptians and other ancient peoples, may be termed embryonic normal schools. The Jesuit system of colleges, created by Loyola, is in reality a marvelous system of un-normal normal schools. But the normal school as we understand it, is an institution of the nineteenth century. It originated in the labors of Pestalozzi and his co-workers. The world needed efficient teachers. As military schools furnished efficient generals, and theological schools efficient ministers, it was predicted that normal schools would be able to furnish efficient teachers. The establishment of a system of normal schools by

every civilized state on the globe demonstrates the correctness of the prediction.

Educating teachers is the work of the normal school. As the medical college educates physicians, so the normal school educates teachers. The normal student is to be a teacher, and the business of the normal school is to educate him for his work. Whatever is necessary to the education of efficient teachers is normal-school work, and necessarily includes academic as well as professional work. In this respect normal schools are peculiar.

The normal school now does academic work in common with high schools and colleges. Our normal schools, up to the present, have been compelled to make direct connection with our elementary schools. The normal has thus been doing the work of the high school in addition to its own proper work. It is believed that in the near future a high-school diploma or its equivalent will be made the condition of admission to the normal school. The reasons in favor of this change are apparent: it is believed that it would double the efficiency of the normal school.

Professional work is clearly the distinctive work of the normal school. This is the work that normal schools do which other schools do not do. I venture to briefly outline the lines of professional work pursued in normal schools.

Educational psychology is made the basis of distinctive normal-school work. Through self the normal student studies the race, and thus becomes familiar with the laws of mental activity and the laws of mental growth. He profoundly studies each power of the mind, its stages of growth, its laws of growth, its means of growth, and methods of promoting its growth. He learns to put himself in the place of the pupil, that he may intelligently lead him. Deep in the knowledge of self, and in the laws of mental activity and mental growth, the normal student lays the foundations for the science of education and the art of teaching.

The professional study of the branches and subjects to be taught is an important part of the distinctive work of the normal school. Branches studied in other schools are here critically reëxamined from the standpoint of the teacher. The normal student tries to understand the plan of the subject to be taught, as well as the plan of child-mind. The un-normal teacher fails to adapt the matter and the method to the wants of the learner, because he neither understands the plan of child-mind nor the plan of the subject he tries to teach.

The history of educational evolution is a line of valuable normal-school work. The normal student enforces his individual experience by the experience of the race. He becomes broader and deeper because he bathes in the thought and experience of the historic nations. He prepares to go forth and work in the light of sixty centuries.

The science of education is the central line of distinctive normal-school

work. Education is the science of human development. The central idea is human development. The field is the phenomena of human growth. Around the central idea are grouped systematically the laws of growth and development. Under the laws are grouped the principles, the facts, the illustrations, and the applications. Thus is builded the science of education. Aided by the body of accepted educational doctrines, aided by the light of educational psychology and the history of education, aided by the works of the masters, the normal student labors to build for himself the science of education.

The art of teaching occupies a prominent place in distinctive normal-school work. The art of educating immortal minds is the highest of all arts. To become an educational artist requires more thought and toil than to become a great musician, or sculptor, or painter. The normal student bases the art of teaching on the science of education. To him methods are systematic plans of work adapted to the learners. To him theories and examples and suggestions of others are merely helps. He creates his own ideals and works them out in his own way. The art of teaching embraces general methods, methods of teaching the various branches, and practice teaching. A large proportion of our professional literature belongs in this line of work.

The art of school management is an essential line of distinctive normal-school work. It includes educational instrumentalities, school organization and government, courses of study and programs, and measures pertaining to educational progress. Like the art of teaching, the art of school management is based on educational psychology and the science of education. The normal student learns to work from the standpoint of the pupil, and to make all measures educational. The whole subject of organizing, governing, and conducting schools is carefully considered from the standpoint of the child. Self-government is the central idea. School-grounds are planned, buildings constructed, furniture and apparatus invented, books created, and competent teachers educated, to stimulate the young to self-exertion and train them to habits of self-control.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY THOMAS H. KIRK.]

IRWIN SHEPARD, of Minnesota, opened the discussion of this paper, and that of President Parr, which preceded. He believed that the work of normal schools was dimly outlined, and that we should begin seriously to formulate it. At present, there is no consensus of judgment among normal schools. The prevalent fallacy that teachers, like poets, are born, not made, works great harm to normal schools, taking from them much credit which is fairly their due. Another thing which injures these institutions is the small pop-

ular demand for trained teachers. As stated in the preceding paper, academic work should not be cut off from the normal system. To do so would be to make professional work theoretical and devoid of real art. Academic and professional work may be made coincident. It is a mistake to suppose that breadth of culture cannot come without a study of the so-called higher branches. The demand of the time is, more professional work. We should be careful how we meet it. An addition of subjects called professional to the curriculum is dangerous, if unaccompanied by the true professional spirit that might be made to dominate work of more humble name. The best thing we can give the pupils of normal schools is high ideals.

JEROME ALLEN, of New York, with a compliment to Mr. Shepard for his clear and careful statement, said there was a demand all over the country for higher education. He claimed that we have already a science of education, and that the normal school must deal with it in a dignified professional way, above what seemed to be in the minds of Mr. Shepard and Mr. Baldwin.

President PARR agreed with Mr. Allen, and inquired whether the failure of our normal schools in this direction does not account for the fact that one hundred and fifty Americans seek such training in Germany every year.

M. A. MONTGOMERY, of Mississippi, claimed that the one hundred and fifty come back disappointed.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, of St. Louis, was hopeful that the time was not far distant when the higher training found in Germany would be furnished in American colleges. Much progress had been made educationally in America in the last few years, more than in any other country, and he hoped the highest professional training would soon be obtainable here.

IRA G. HOITT, of California, then spoke a few words in emphasis of what had been said of educational work as demanding professional teachers, and extended cordial greeting to the friends who had come from afar, adding an invitation to meet the teachers of California.

"THE SUBJECT-MATTER THAT PROPERLY BELONGS TO THE NORMAL-SCHOOL CURRICULUM."

CYRUS W. HODGIN, RICHMOND, INDIANA.

In this discussion the term *Curriculum* is given its popular meaning, of the course of study laid down for the student to pursue.

The term *Normal School* is limited in its application to the public institution, the specific purpose of which is the preparation of teachers for the public schools.

By *Subject-Matter* is meant matter of thought.

The little child, like the race of which he is part, enters the world a bundle of infinite possibilities surrounded by a multitude of limitations. The removal of these limitations from the individual and the race, and the development of the possibilities of both individual and race, constitute education in its broadest sense. But the unaided individual is unequal to the task involved in the educational process. A single-handed struggle is a struggle meeting with constant defeat; hence, combination and organization. The family, the church, the state, and industrial society, are forms of organization, each of which, in its own way, contributes something to the educational process. These institutions began very early to develop, and a degree of what we call civilization resulted from their combined action. As civilization advanced it brought to bear the pressure of limitations not felt before, and a demand for their removal at once arose. The inadequacy of the existing institutions to meet the demand led to the organization of another, the school. The field of its operations has been large and varied. The attempt has been made to secure through it the removal of a very wide range of limitations. Just what its own limitations shall be, just what the school, particularly the public school (which is the phase of the school to which our attention is now directed) shall teach, has long been, and is still, a question of animated discussion by some of the most capable men and women of the educational world. No decision of the question has been reached that, in its details, is acceptable to all; nor is such a decision likely soon to be reached. There are, however, certain general conclusions upon which all are in substantial accord. It is generally agreed, I believe, that the public school, being a public institution, should devote itself to serving public ends. But even here the limits are not clearly drawn.

Each individual is limited by certain physical wants; he must, to exist, be supplied with food, clothing, and shelter. After passing the years of dependence, he should, with certain legitimate exceptions, render an equivalent for everything he receives. It is, therefore, a matter of public interest that each child shall be prepared for and trained to honest self-support. In preparation for this, he must acquire a degree of mastery over Nature; he must be able to interpret her, and, so to speak, harness her forces in his service. The school must contribute its share toward his preparation and training for this mastery.

Because of the social order into which the child is born, he is constantly brought into contact with his fellows, and his rights are limited in a multitude of ways by the rights of others. If he be led to recognize these rights, and to purposely circumscribe his conduct by a recognition of his relations to others, he will thus remove the greater limitation of selfishness, and be led into a higher freedom than could result from the arbitrary exercise of his own so-called personal liberty. The school must contribute to this most desirable end.

Again, the child is born into a political order; he is a member of, the state. This lays upon him, whether he wills or not, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. It is a matter of public interest that he be able and willing to meet these duties and responsibilities faithfully, intelligently, and efficiently. The school must aid in the preparation of the child for citizenship.

All these complicated relations of the individual lay upon him a multitude of duties; he is placed under moral responsibilities which he must not only perceive, but he must cheerfully assume, in order to contribute to the good of others, and to attain his own highest good. In short, he must be trained to a morality such, that if he does wrong he shall not do it through ignorance, but with eyes open to the consequences. The school is held responsible for an increasingly large share of such training.

Now the public school implies the public-school teacher, equipped with the necessary knowledge to meet the demands of his position. These demands require a preparation as full, as definite, and as scientific as that required for the physician, the lawyer, or the divine; in short, the teacher must have a thoroughly *professional* preparation and training.

The inadequacy of existing institutions to furnish appropriate professional preparation for the teacher led to the establishment of a special school for the purpose—the normal school.

We have seen that the public school must give the pupil a knowledge of and a mastery over nature, such that he can become honestly self-supporting. The keys to this mastery are mathematics and the natural sciences. He must also understand his relations in society and the state; he must feel the duties and responsibilities resting upon him because of these relations, and he must will to assume and discharge them. The keys he needs here are principally those of language and history.

Whether it has come about consciously or unconsciously, we have presented in the so-called common-school branches the most important instrumentalities for the education of the individual. The teacher must, therefore, know these subjects.

But, it is frequently asked, does not the common school itself, or the academy, or high school, furnish this knowledge? Certainly not as the teacher must know it. These schools are expected to give the pupil ability to use these subjects as tools for the mastery of nature and the meeting of social and civic duties. The teacher must have not only such a knowledge of the subjects, but he must know them as instruments for the promotion of the educating process,—the process of mind-growth. The teacher needs himself to *construct* these subjects, and through the intimate knowledge of them thus obtained, together with an equally intimate knowledge of mind, be able to lead the child from his germinal state, on through stage by stage of his growth, without wasteful empiricism, into a well-developed being, physically, intellectually, and morally.

The science of arithmetic may be *learned* by beginning with rules and their applications, and going backward to the principles on which its rules are based; or it may be *created* by the mind, by first attaining its chief concepts and principles, and from these determining what its rules and their applications *must* be. The teacher to teach with the best success needs to understand the mode of attaining the science by both processes. The child having attained a few concepts of number, begins arithmetic under the guidance of rules, or of a teacher who lays out the processes for him, entering as deeply into their meaning as his maturity and mental vigor will permit. If the teacher has a logical knowledge of the subject—if he has created it for himself, having attained the concepts, principles and laws of the science, and the order of their dependence—he will lead the pupil back of rules and processes to form in his own mind the concepts, and to perceive the principles by which the rules and processes are determined. This he will do as rapidly as the maturity, advancement and vigor of the pupil's mind will permit, thus preparing him for the intelligent use of arithmetic as a tool to be wielded in the process of subduing the world of matter and of material forces unto himself.

When the child begins the study of geography, he has seen but a very small portion of the earth's surface; but by the aid of maps, pictures, and verbal descriptions, the imagination constructs a conception of the terrestrial globe, with its surface elevations, their positions, forms, and relations. In like manner he gains a knowledge of the animals and plants peculiar to the different zones, the minerals and their distribution, and the occupations of men. The conception of the globe thus formed by any number of individuals will not be precisely alike, nor will any one conception agree, except in general outline, with the external reality; hence the importance to the teacher of understanding whence the material comes that his mind uses in forming its idea of the globe, and of his collecting and using that material to correct and perfect his knowledge of it. If the teacher has not a rational conception of the earth, and does not know the means and processes by which such a conception can be attained, he will lead his pupils to form an idea of it no more definite than his own. His teaching will be diffuse, perhaps pointless, when it should be coherent and pointed.

Besides a rational notion of the earth as a whole and related parts, the teacher must know it in its relations to the race and to the individual. Every child is heir to this magnificent patrimony, and he should be led into such an intimate acquaintance with it and the laws governing his relations to it that he may enter into the conscious possession of his inheritance.

Further, it is through the knowledge of this subject that the natural limitations of space, under which we are all born, can be removed. We are by birth "adscripts to the soil." The world is to us only that extent of territory which our own eyes have beheld and our own feet have trod. A comprehensive knowledge of geography sets us free from our serfdom, and

we become consciously citizens of the world, with all the enlarging and liberalizing tendencies that the term cosmopolitan implies.

In like manner the subject of history, if properly known, may be used by the teacher to remove from the pupil his natural limitations in time, and enable him to live in the ages past; to watch the struggles by which his fathers secured and handed down to him the precious legacies which he now inherits; to discover in the apparent confusion of human events in different times and places, an orderly process of development of the human spirit, by which it is projecting itself into institutions and using them as means for the promotion of its own destiny—its freedom.

Without further detail of illustration, this will serve to indicate the kind of knowledge of the common-school branches which the teacher ought to have. He must know them from the teacher's standpoint. Such a knowledge of them is not at present obtainable from the common school, the high school, or the academy. The normal school should give it.

Since the mind is the subject of the educating process, it is, as has been intimated, imperatively necessary that the teacher should understand its nature, and its powers, with their functions, processes, and products; the laws governing their activity, the order of their development, and the proper stimuli under which their development may be promoted. This knowledge is obtained by the study of educational psychology. It cannot be acquired by the mere study of a text-book. It must come chiefly by the direct study of the mind itself, through personal introspection, and by observing the evidences of mental activity in others. The text-book, however, may be very properly and profitably used as a guide. The teacher must have such a familiar acquaintance with the forms of mental activity in children and youth as to be able to put himself into active sympathy with their thoughts, feelings, and volitions, and thus be able to guide them in their acquisition of knowledge, to arouse in them the right kind of emotions, and to stimulate them to worthy decisions of will worthily executed. In this way, more effectively than in any other, can the teacher become able to direct the pupil in the formation of a self-reliant, patient, truthful, benevolent, and morally courageous character. And this is part of the teacher's work.

Stubbs, the historian of the British Constitution, has well said: "The roots of the present lie deep in the past, and nothing in the past is dead to him who cares to know how the present comes to be what it is." In order to know anything completely, we must know its genesis as well as the conditions and steps of its growth. The educator needs to know the facts and fundamental principles of the educational systems of the past, in order that he may profit by what has been done, whether it has been good or bad. A young friend of mine, some years ago, spent many weary months in the invention of a corn-sheller. After it was completed, a drawing was sent to Washington, and letters-patent asked for, with the confident expectation that they would be granted. In due time, a response was received from the Com-

missioner of Patents, stating that the very identical machine had been patented fifty years before, and had long since been superseded by many very much better ones. A brief investigation of the history of corn-shellers would have enabled my young friend to apply his inventive genius to the improvement of the best corn-sheller in the world, instead of bringing forth a product fifty years behind the time. How many have been the experiments in teaching, with similar results! We need the information to be obtained from the history of education to enable us to survey the field of present achievements; to enable us to compare and contrast systems; to understand the theory of man's destiny upon which each people has builded.

There is a biographical side of educational history that ought not to be overlooked. There is no better source of inspiration than the life of a great man, or woman, in which we see embodied the struggle after the ideal we are seeking to attain.

In every science there is some great central, all-pervading and vitalizing principle about which all the elements of the science naturally and necessarily group themselves in orderly arrangement. The science of education is no exception. The body of educational doctrine is assuming organic form around the central and vitalizing idea of the *purpose* of the educating process. It is exceedingly important that the teacher shall have a clear and correct theory of the true ends of education. His views of this matter, whether true or false, will very largely determine what he will do in the school-room, and how he will do it. Proper instruction in the science of education will give him correct views, and it should have an important place in the normal-school curriculum.

Not only must the teacher know the subjects to be taught, the mind to be instructed, and the history and purposes of education: he must know the method of presenting the subjects to the mind so that they may act as proper stimuli in the promotion of the mind's development. The subjects of study are the embodiments of thought: there is a plan in each of them. The mind is under law in its activity. There is an adaptation of subjects to mind; they were created for each other. There must be, therefore, a general method for the presentation of subjects that is natural and hence the most economical of time and mental energy to both teacher and pupil.

As there is a differentiation of general into special subjects, so there is a corresponding differentiation of general into special method, following the lines of special subjects. As there is a nervous system running through the body, so there is a method system running through the universe of matter and of thought. This method phase of the teacher's preparation is not accomplished by any system of empirical devices, recipes, or patent nostrums. It will enable the teacher to interpret, and to adapt devices and intelligently employ them as means to ends. In the language of President Parr's address, "The study of special method involves every other didactic subject. It is the culmination of the science of education, so far as instruction is concerned."

In the light of this very brief and very general discussion of what the public school is expected to do for the pupil, and what the normal school must, therefore, do for the teacher, I determine that, "the subject-matter properly belonging to the normal-school curriculum" includes:

1. A knowledge of the subjects required to be taught. This knowledge must be of sufficient extent, and known from such standpoints, as will enable the teacher to lead the pupil into the possession of his inheritance, material and spiritual.

2. Such a knowledge of the nature, powers, processes, and product of mind as will enable the teacher, in all the steps of the educating process, to do the right thing at the right time, and in the right way.

3. Such a knowledge of the history of education as will enable him to base his educational system on a correct theory of human destiny, and to avoid wasteful experiments in his work.

4. Such a knowledge of education-science as will furnish a correct idea of the end of the educating process, and enable him to marshal the means necessary to accomplish the end.

5. Such a knowledge of method as will enable him to apply with certainty of adaptation, specific means to specific ends.

6. In addition to the above, it is the writer's conviction that the highest welfare of the children of the common schools demands that in the subject-matter of the normal-school curriculum, should be found observation and practice in a training school, under the guidance of experienced and skillful critic-teachers.

THE SUBJECT-MATTER THAT PROPERLY BELONGS TO THE NORMAL-SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

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"The Normal-School Curriculum" is a term that should cover wide variation, since each class of normal schools has its special field to fill. The efforts that have been made for uniformity might better be directed toward differentiation, working toward the highest individual development on the ground already held, and the occupation of that upper educational field so long strangely left vacant. This was suggested by President Sheldon, of Oswego, when a rare opportunity offered in the founding of many normal schools by the great state of New York. He proposed, that while most of them should continue the good work of training teachers for the elementary and secondary schools, one normal school among the number should undertake the advance movement, admitting to its course of broader training only persons fitted by previous culture and ability to take leading educational

positions—to be city superintendents, college professors, and heads of institutions. Teaching will never be raised to its true dignity as a profession until, as in other professions, the higher ranks, even more than the lower, are reached only through distinctive training. The chairs of pedagogy rapidly being established in our leading universities are an attempt, but an inadequate one, toward filling this need. As Johns Hopkins University was wisely moulded, not to add one more institution to the class already existing, but to take up the work where they were obliged to leave off, so let us hope the United States may in time, like France, head its system of training schools for teachers by a “Superior Normal School” of true university rank.

It makes a teacher’s heart burn to think what the curriculum of such a normal school might be—including what profound study of psychology, physiology, and ethics, with their applications to developing and training the whole nature; what review of educational history, and sifting of educational theory, in the light of the world’s history and progress; what comparison of the best schools of all grades and countries, and practical tours of observation; what scientific investigation of the lines of future advance! We dream of guidance by the rarest and most experienced teachers, who should feel this the Socratic seat of highest honor, and of fresh impetus from the broader world, through lectures from those still too busy in their successful work in science, art, literature, invention, to do more than stop and briefly suggest how the human being may be helped toward similar success.

Would not the normal schools of lower grade feel the inspiration of such leadership, and do their own work far better than now? For none the less would there be a call for normal schools to give the best training possible to teachers whose field must lie in narrower limits. It has been urged that normal schools should demand a uniform high standard for admission and after-training, letting the elementary schools be finally supplied by those teachers who sink to this level in the competition for success. But the time is far distant when the rank and pay of public-school teachers will warrant them in the expense of long-continued preparation. Such demands would simply result in giving no normal training at all to the great mass of teachers. Besides, the idea is vicious that elementary teaching should be left to teachers of native inferiority. Especially in the case of women, with their God-given devotion to the training of children, yet uncertainty as to their future life-work—whether they shall give that training mainly in the school or the home—it is common to find bright intellects and noble characters, and even a true professional spirit, among those who can give but a few years to preparation for teaching. The normal school should recognize these conditions, and give the best training possible to these native teachers by a course of study carefully adapted to their limitations of time, while offering every opportunity and inducement for more extended courses of study. Thus will the normal schools at once broaden the base of the educa-

tional pyramid and build it upward. The distinct recognition of these two aims will, I believe, do most to improve that present average curriculum which has gradually assumed shape as the result of experience. And the normal schools may well have courage to go forward with such development, since despite all their limitations they have already achieved results well worth the doing, as shown by their great increase in numbers and appreciation, and by such authoritative testimony as that of Dr. Harris, that he has found the teaching of normal-school graduates averaging fifty per cent. above that of other public-school teachers.

There is a tendency at present to consider the usual normal-school curriculum as divided into two distinct departments, "academic" and "professional," and to urge that the so-called "professional" portion, by which is meant educational theory and practice, is all that belongs to the normal school, the academic being remanded to the high school. I object to this nomenclature. The work of a normal school is, or should be, *all* professional — as truly the study of what is to be taught as of how it is to be taught. The professional training of the teacher, then, includes, first, that scholarship and culture which develops and equips the human being, and therefore the teacher, who should be a preëminent human being; and, second, the technique of his work, as to principles and methods of teaching. It is as useless to discuss which of these is the more important as to ask which half of a sphere is the more important to the sphere.

The mooted question is, Whether the academic and the technical parts of the teacher's preparation should be carried on simultaneously or in succession? When the choice of teaching as a vocation comes late, after scholastic culture has been well advanced, the technical part must be mainly super-added; though, even then, not a mere review, but a fresh study of the matter to be taught, from the teaching point of view, must be not only an honored but a vital part of the curriculum. But it does not follow that the scholastic and technical should be thus separated in ordinary normal schools. There are two strong reasons why they should go on together.

The first is, that good methods of teaching are best imparted in connection with good teaching. What you may tell a pupil has no such force as an object-lesson. And it is not self-complacency in the normal school to claim that it does better teaching in the same subjects than the average high school. If it does not, it has no right to be a normal school — that is, a model school, as its name imports; a leader in methods of teaching. Again, in the normal school, it is not merely by absorbing the good methods thus practically exemplified that the pupil acquires them, but by having his attention definitely directed to the principles of teaching thus illustrated, while he is in condition to appreciate them most keenly. President Allen, of the California Normal School, has a happy illustration of the force thus gained. He says, as in chemistry there is a nascent state when elements will combine that under other conditions you may vainly strive to unite, so at the

moment when the pupil has learned a thing, his mind is in the nascent state for grasping the idea how to teach it.

Professor Payne, of Michigan University, in his suggestive article on "The Problem of the Normal Schools," expresses a fear that the spirit of true culture will be sacrificed by thus keeping the teacher's work in view while acquiring knowledge. He quotes Plato in support of his opinion that "a study pursued with direct reference to practical ends loses a considerable portion of its culture value." The practical ends Plato mentions with abhorrence are buying and selling. Now teaching, while a practical end, is at the opposite pole in spirit: it is not acquiring, but giving. As Bacon has said, knowledge pursued for one's self alone leads to selfishness. The teacher, who imparts his treasure, has, next to the Gospel minister, the most liberalizing of professions. Chaucer pictured him truly in the "Oxenford Clerke":

"Gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teche."

Stopping after a pupil has mastered a subject to discuss how he could teach it to others, I have always found to have a most elevating effect upon his spirit; and, at the same time, by the glorious law that it is more blessed to give than to receive, it blesses him in return with a more vivid conception of the matter learned.

Besides the gain to both from the interaction of the scholarship and the technical part of a teacher's training, there is another strong reason for beginning the technical part early and continuing it through a long period. Teaching is an art as well as a science; and, as in acquiring any other art, the practice cannot be postponed until the whole science has been learned. Sufficient time must be allowed for long practice, from the simpler to the more complicated; and only as a principle is not merely understood, but its use acquired, is the next step, either of clear conception or of realization within reach. It is true that psychology, though the main basis of true principles of teaching, cannot be thoroughly taught early in the course. To place the main study of it at this point is asking the beginner to reach at one bound the very top of the ladder of human science; the vain attempt makes him suppose he has mastered what he has not, and he becomes a petty thinker, developing from these half-understood ideas methods equally narrow. But there are a few fundamental principles of teaching which lie at the very doorway of the nature and development of mind, and to which, when once presented, every mind responds, long before the deeper things of psychology can be grasped. All educators agree upon them; they have even become popular outside demands upon the schools; and yet they are violated in nearly every school in the land, from the primary grade to the university. I refer to such laws as the objective presentation of ideas, the acquisition of the idea before the word standing for it, the self-activity of the pupil. The recognition of these principles should become a second nature to the teacher, like the acquisition of a true eye by a mechanic.

and there are certain universal tools of the teacher which he must attain skill in using: especially, the art of questioning, and secondarily, such arts as drill, review, and illustration. It is nothing to learn about these. Everyone has heard of them. Yet how different is knowledge from skill! The poorest questioning I ever heard in a class-room was from the lips of a learned professor in a leading university; his students were in the habit of imitating those absurd quizzes. Was this because the professor did not know better? Of course not.

The truth is, one must begin young in the use of these tools of the teacher, as must the mechanic in the use of his tools, or the musician of his instrument. This is the one great advantage the elementary normal school has over the post-graduate; let us not throw it away. Let every normal school begin at once the training of its entering pupil in these few, fundamental, accepted elements of good teaching. Will this make mere routine teachers? No more than practice in scales and finger exercises will make the musical artist less able to draw out the majestic harmonies of his instrument. How should this drill be provided for in a normal-school curriculum? By giving time and place for it, and by agreement of the whole faculty to this end. A careful teaching of these few fundamental truths, with so much of psychology as is involved in them, should be followed up by a concerted action of all the teachers to this end, somewhat as all agree to see that the pupil spells and speaks correctly. Method classes, perhaps held not more frequently than once a week, may develop their application to one branch of elementary study after another. Practice upon these few things, like at a time, may be secured by that teaching of classmates, representing younger pupils, which is absurd and fruitless when complex results are sought, but is exactly adapted to fixing a single point. Sketches of imaginary lessons may serve their purpose here; certainly not as often used. Observation in the model school, with reports on these special topics, whatever else may be noticed at the same time; observation and criticism of their own teachers—such ways of making these few fundamental things a second nature will occur to any normal teacher. Would it not be worth more than the too early discussion of wider themes in teaching? Would not give a foundation for these later studies, so that they would be approached with altogether another degree of power?

The deeper and more systematic study of psychology, the more general study of theory and method, belong to the riper part of the course. After grounding in exact methods in physical sciences and language, and an acquaintance with psychology, psychology will be understood in a profounder sense, and its application will be more free and original. Now come more general observations in the model school, and finally practice in the training school. This practice will now not be mere imitation or routine, but give play for originality. It is not the province of my paper to dwell on the training school, which is the theme of separate treatment; but how speak

of a normal-school curriculum without including practice in teaching? As well turn young physicians out without experience. Who does not know what hospital practice is to them? The model school of observation, which some would substitute, is rather a preliminary and accompaniment, answering to the clinic.

There is nothing new suggested here, except a more careful and philosophic division of the technical part of the normal-school curriculum; giving long practice in a few definite things that should become habits, and greater freedom and power in the wider matters that can only be the flower of previous culture, and, as such, be unfixed and growing.

Two principles of choice may be mentioned that will assist in the selection of both the more technical and the more scholastic parts of the curriculum, and help in adjustment to the exasperating limitations that shut us in. The first of these has indeed been already applied in the sketch of technical work. Its formation I quote from President Allen. He says: "There are certain things a pupil should know, certain others that he should know about, and certain others still that he should do." Such a subject as arithmetic, for instance, in which he is to train his young pupils' thinking powers to definite, logical processes, he should know; while a subject like geography, that is to be added to through life by reading and traveling, he should rather know about—know where to put his hand on the information he desires by means of atlas, books, and newspapers. Physiology belongs emphatically to the things he should know, since his young pupils' health and development depend largely on his knowledge. Not, of course, that he can have a complete knowledge of physiology—who has? But instead of a meaningless nomenclature of bones and muscle, or a parrot-like memory of certain hygienic maxims, a normal graduate should and can have a clear fundamental acquaintance with physiological functions, as determined from rough dissections of animals, microscopic examination of prepared tissues, simple, painless experiments upon living animals, and observation of a few of his own functions, as seeing and breathing; he ought to inspect carefully and intelligently sanitary provisions of dwelling and school-houses; and the hygienic laws thus vividly impressed by a study of their reasons should become to him a second nature, to be continually applied through all his teaching. While he should thus, in a very true though incomplete sense, know physiology, such sciences as geology and astronomy it is sufficient that he know about, having a start from which he may go on as taste or circumstances may direct.

But other subjects in the curriculum belong to the division of things that he should learn to do. Reading—that reading which is a true grasping of the thoughts presented, and a clear, expressive rendering of this meaning to others—this is a power to do, to fit and turn the key of knowledge first for himself and then for others. Many a college graduate has it, not as the teacher must have it, to enable him to guide the child to the use of the same

masterful key. Writing, drawing, music, belong in this list of things to do. So does manual training throughout, whatever be the special form or amount that may be found best to develop the young teacher harmoniously, and to give him a sympathetic touch upon his pupils' conditions of life. All these subjects in which knowledge is at once transmuted into execution, with an hour of practice to a minute of theory, are a real relief to the purely mental strain of other study, so that the two classes of subjects should be carried on simultaneously. A curriculum may not be so heavy as it looks, by this judicious combination of study and exercises.

This principle of choice, to be valuable, must be carried down from the different subjects of the curriculum to the parts of each subject. For instance, arithmetic was spoken of as a subject to be known, but far be it from me to mean that years should be spent in acquiring its details. The student should know a few fundamental standards and principles thoroughly: he should only know about their elaborate and seldom-used applications; and he should do certain things accurately and quickly, including, besides his computations, factoring and measurement, the analysis of problems, that practical logic which is not so much knowledge as a kind of mental walking, each step a little to one side, but always forward.

The second of the two principles I wish to urge in the selection of a curriculum is, that such portions of each subject should be presented, and by such methods, as will set the young teacher in the way of after progress. This principle is often violated when the catalogue-list of studies does not betray the failure. For instance, that the schools may not drag in the rear of this age of science, the "elements" of many sciences have been introduced. But the term is a misnomer, as they are usually taught; "elements" for further study they are not, but mere summaries of results. This is the most deadening of all teaching, that shows immeasurable heights without setting one foot on the ladder. Object lessons were a protest against this system; but they fell into merited disfavor as thin and valueless, through the failure of the very normal schools that introduced them to train their students along the same line, in the method and spirit of science. This larger training is what we must make way for in the curriculum, at the expense of more showy portions of the same subjects. Let me give an example in a single science—zoölogy. All too often, the normal school, forgetting its province as a leader of true methods, makes no attempt to start its pupil in real work, but attempts to cram him with results. A book, charts, schedules, memorizing, a hasty handling of specimens, scarcely long enough to observe more about them than the disagreeable alcoholic smell—this is the régime. The student rarely becomes interested; even if he does, he is nearly helpless to go on by himself, and if he enters a zoölogical laboratory, he is put right to work at the beginning as if he had never learned anything. I remember, in one of the best laboratories, hearing the graduate of such a process say, with contempt: "I wasted a great deal of time in that normal

school!" As a real instance is worth more than theory, pardon me for sketching what has been found practicable in one normal school. The student is put at the direct study of a few typical animals. A pocket-lens, penknife, scissors, forceps, and home-set dissecting needle, constitute the equipment. The animals chosen are so common that he collects them himself, or they can be purchased in quantities at the markets. A little dissecting manual may be used, or the teacher directs the simple work. It is wonderful how zeal is awakened, antipathy overcome by interest, and observation made keen. Drawings of what is seen make observation more definite, and hold results in memory. Special points are worked out by use of the compound microscope, and some familiarity with that instrument is not the least that is gained. With half-a-dozen good microscopes, it was found possible to train ninety pupils, taken by sections, to handle the microscopes with care, and use the lower and more useful objectives. The animals thus studied were watched as far as possible as to their life and habits. The library was eagerly searched afterward for confirmation of the student's observations, and addition of particulars which now meant to him what would have been unintelligible before his observation. Specimens of related animals, fresh or from the museum, were now freely handled and compared, and classification followed naturally. Examinations were sometimes a review of what had been learned, but more often upon the power of observing some animal not before studied; and the descriptions were often more accurate and full than those of ordinary text-books. Practical acquaintance with some of the chief insect pests, and ways of exterminating them, as required by California law, made an excellent beginning in field-work. A discussion, for a day or two at the end, on how to adapt similar teaching to the public schools, brought out, not mere imitation, but ingenious modifications. The students thus interested, and started in real work, had scarcely touched on those broader laws of biology that are its grandest results; they were in position to study and read understandingly on these high themes; they were introduced to the great masters, and able to begin following them. No university laboratory but would welcome them; no Huxley or Agassiz but would say they had at least made a beginning; and no country school district but may profit by their true teaching, which will awaken a general spirit of observation, and may start some child, born with the ruralist spirit, upon a path leading far beyond their own attainments.

As I have tried to indicate, that only is good teaching which inspires and helps the student to go further. One of the gravest charges which have been brought against the present normal schools is that they do not induce a love of learning. I cannot believe this criticism merited, but it is vital to be ignored. How shall the normal schools induce a more general scholarship? How shall they develop what is even more essential, the spirit of scholarship? Partly by broadening the curriculum as fast as this may be done. But I believe that the main solution of the problem is in a more

imate connection with the universities. Let the normal schools expect and urge by direct and indirect suggestion that a larger proportion of their graduates shall pursue broad courses of study at those great centers of learning whose very atmosphere kindles new fires. Yet in adopting their curriculum to this end, let them avoid the fatal error of dwarfing their own distinctive work by offering preparation for college as a substitute for the full normal training. Thus have many normal schools drawn their strongest pupils into what was almost the same as high-school work, and left the dullards to drag down the study of teaching proper. For instance, that generous and critical study of the mother tongue which is one of the best gifts of culture, and worth far more to public-school teachers than the same length of time spent upon even the parent Latin, must not be sacrificed, although those students who foresee sufficient time at their command should also be grounded in other languages. The true solution seems to be that the course required of all should furnish a sound basis for university work; and any special requirements for admission into particular departments must be optional and additional. Thus will an open door be set before the choice spirits, and the reflex influence of their present studies and their later university attainments, stimulate the whole normal school. Is not the larger use of the greatest universities of our country worth more than to prolong our own course a little, perchance assuming before earned the name of normal college or university? There is nothing more deadening to students than to bear a higher name than they are entitled to. This is the worst of the influences of weak colleges. Let us hold bravely to our own good name of normal school, and dignify our work by making it a noble, integral part of a great whole. And are not the universities in their turn ready to hold out a more cordial hand to the normal schools? As the fountain-heads of instruction in our land, it is surely theirs to take the most special interest in the excellence and co-working of training schools for teachers. The curriculum of the university and that of the normal school should be made to fit together, not only as to scholarship, but as to pedagogical training. And instead of such a decision as that lately made in accordance with legislative provisions in New York State, that normal-school graduates have not even the access of high-school graduates to competition for free scholarships in Cornell University, the system everywhere should be that of offering special scholarships and fellowships in all our state universities to a certain per cent. of the best normal-school graduates, conditioned not on their scholarship alone, but on their excellence as teachers.

The subject-matter of the curriculum is scarcely the theme under which to speak of the training in character which is more absolutely essential for true teachers than even scholarship or technical skill, since this training, which must lie at the root of everything, is not so much a matter of the curriculum as of the personal and general spirit of the faculty. That there should, however, be not only an all-pervading atmosphere of high charac-

ter and purpose, but also some distinct place and time allowed in the curriculum for moral training, I do most earnestly believe. Especially time should be allowed in the class-room for the students' active discussion of practical morals, with gentle guidance by the teacher to a recognition of their foundations and far-reaching relations. And this moral training, however brought about, is one of the main elements of that development of enthusiasm in teaching which is, after all, the highest success of the normal school. How shall teachers be trained up to love their work with a devotion high and sustained? Enthusiasm is indeed a divine inbreathing, but, like other heavenly gifts, it is to be won by recognizing and working toward the conditions that are open doors for the Spirit of God to enter. What are these moral and intellectual conditions of enthusiasm in teaching? Are they not three: love of the human being and his higher development, love of knowledge, and a creative delight in working out the problems of teaching, due partly to a large conception, and partly to sufficient skill to give visible, hopeful returns for effort? I have tried to indicate some ways in which our curriculum may be more fully adjusted to these ends. But I am far from thinking that any curriculum can be settled once for all. Look at our universities, at their progress in twenty years! Such, let us hope, may be the normal-school development. If any schools should have a curriculum not settled, but continually improving, most of all should the normal schools, whose peculiar function it is to lead in the progress of school education.

DISCUSSION.*

W. T. HARRIS said that in the main he agreed with the paper of Mr. Hodgin.

First, the work of the normal school should consist of a review of those branches which are to be taught later by the normal graduate in the public school. In this review the student should be brought to examine the subject from the standpoint of a teacher, not a mere learner of the branch. Students should be taught the complete rationale of each branch; should learn the unfolding of the subject—that is, the true order of the topics, their relations to each other, and to the order of mental growth. For example, decimal fractions should succeed, not precede, common fractions, as made to do in some arithmetics, because they are more complex than common fractions; and long division should precede short division, because it is easier. It is highly important in the review of the common branches, therefore, that the student become intelligent in respect to the development of the stadia of the subject. It is necessary first of all, that the student discuss

* Reported by the Secretary.

the order of development of the subject, and the method of teaching it, and that he make this study always as one who purposes to teach others, not simply as one who purposes to know for himself.

Second, the normal school should show the relation of all branches in the curriculum to each other; for instance, the relation of geography to arithmetic. The normal-school teacher should see the symmetrical whole of learning, should not magnify a branch beyond its usefulness, nor ride a hobby, and should call upon students while making these reviews to reflect upon methods all along the line. The best normal schools of this country have followed these plans somewhat, and have led others in the same direction.

Third, besides the common English branches, the history of educational reformers should be given in the first year as one of the most important subjects. This study the student can present in the form of critiques of the works of such reformers. In order that this may be done intelligently, a classification of the nature of man should be made. Of the five classes into which the world of knowledge may be divided, three tower above all others: man as a body, man as a soul, and nature, or the world of things. In the study of nature, students should know two great lines, organic and inorganic. The study of man should be made with respect to psychological relations, and with the purpose of developing his intellectual, ethical and æsthetical sides. No matter what may be said to the contrary, the ethical must not be neglected. The theory that a knowledge of the means of self-preservation is the most important, is fallacious. It is not so necessary that man should live, as that he should live in accordance with ethical law. Even the civil law considers this the correct view. In other words, that which deals with man as a soul is more important than that which looks upon him as an organic being.

Fourth, normal students should study the organization and administration of schools. Normal students themselves should be held to a strict discipline in order that they may have correct ideas of discipline. Some schools fail to give their pupils practical ideals in this respect. Pedagogic chairs in universities and colleges cannot fortify their students against practical failure at this point in managing schools of their own.

Fifth, the normal school should teach the student what each study will do for a pupil; that is, what possibilities the branch presents in the way of mental training. And just here it will not answer to be indefinite. To say, this cultivates the attention, or, mathematics trains the reasoning power, is not sufficient, because too indefinite; it is necessary to specify just what it does and just how it does it.

Sixth, in the history of education it is necessary to study the educational idea of each nation, which is always based upon the spirit of its civilization. This includes a study of the history of civilization in a comparative sense, showing how civil, religious, and other institutions have sprung up.

A thorough study of the spirit of our institutions should be made in order that our educational system may fit pupils for American citizenship.

Seventh, the study of educational reformers may be either helpful or hurtful. It should therefore be accompanied and supplemented by the study of psychology; and the light of psychological knowledge should be brought to bear upon the nature of man, and of the subject taught.

Eighth, there should be some severe study of disciplinary subjects such as Latin and mathematics; and this should be insisted on notwithstanding the pupil may have had the same subjects in the high school. Latin should be pursued in part as a study of embryology; that is, should be made to yield knowledge of the sources of our intellectual and social unfolding. Many normal schools teach Latin, but there is rarely one that teaches it in its relation to the history of civilization.

Ninth, natural science should be studied in a general rather than a special way; the student may take special courses in other schools; to take them in the normal would result in overshadowing the more important thoughts. The normal school should not place too much stress upon laboratory work, but should aim rather to teach the students the genesis and order of methods; how to present, for example, a given line of science to different grades, since children ought to have natural science mixed with other studies from the beginning.

The subject-matter to be pursued in normal schools as outlined, can be summed up under four heads:

1. A review of the common branches.
2. A professional course.
3. A disciplinary course.
4. General information in natural science.

THE TRAINING SCHOOL AS AN ADJUNCT OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

CHARLES H. ALLEN, SAN JOSÉ, CALIFORNIA.

The first professional book that took fast hold on the hearts of American teachers was the work of the still revered Page, entitled "The Theory and Practice of Teaching." This book, although not deeply philosophical, is guiding and inspiring, and may still be read with pleasure and profit by all earnest young people who are entering upon the work of teaching. The title of the book was well chosen, and is a recognition of the fact that there are two distinct departments of professional training, namely: the theoretical and the practical. Recognizing this division, and accepting the phraseology,

teachers have been for years, and are still, examined by boards of education upon the theory and practice of teaching. It is true that in these examinations, in most cases, the practice is judged of by the manner in which the candidate describes his practice, rather than from seeing him do actual work.

There is, then, a popular recognition of the two objects that should be aimed at in the training given by our normal schools. Pupils should be taught the *theory* of teaching, based upon psychological laws, the laws of mental growth and development, and the adaptation of each subject in the school curriculum to secure this growth and development; and they should further become skilled in the *practice* of the theories which, upon examination, they have been led to adopt. This latter part of the work of the normal schools is far the most difficult; for in the work of teaching, more than in any other profession, "theory can soar while practice must creep." There is divergency enough everywhere. There are few things, indeed, in which our practice can, or does, keep pace with our theory. The learned Portia said: "I can easier tell twenty men what were good to be done, than be one of twenty to follow mine own teachings." But our profession is, perhaps more than any other, handicapped by a multitude of theories that are not even "good to be done." It is so easy to teach school on paper, that we have in educational journals, and even sometimes in professional books, most beautiful "office theories,"—wrought out in the brain of the writer, odorous of "midnight oil," but totally unfit for use anywhere else. It is needless to say that these are all untested. Indeed, some of the most beautiful, and, to the casual observer, the most plausible of them, are evolved by those who would make a conspicuous failure were they themselves to attempt to teach or to manage an ordinary country school. Teaching school on paper is like building boom-cities on paper: easy while they are ideals, but before the ideal can be realized there must be much hard work, and not a little trimming to suit the circumstances of the case.

And then we have another set of theories in vogue. These are, perhaps, a vague recognition of what *ought* to be done, and which, while in many cases better than pure office theories, are far from any reality likely to become apparent. These will be readily recognized by all of my hearers who have attended county or state institutes, and who have heard one after another give "*my method of*"—doing almost anything. The common introduction is, "I *always* have," etc., etc. If it has ever been granted you, as doubtless in some cases it has, to visit one of these teachers, doing actual work in the school-room, you cannot fail to realize what a wide—and sometimes impassable—gulf there is between the theoretical method discussed before an admiring audience and the *real* method used in the school-room from day to day.

It is more than possible that there may be other theories equally inapplicable, and that these find places, even in our normal schools. It is sup-

posable, at least, that the teachers of methods in normal schools will give, not speculative theories, but the direct conclusions arrived at from study, and actual school-room tests; that they have been, at some time, *themselves* engaged in doing this very work, and *know* whereof they affirm. But, fellow-teachers, this is not always a guaranty that the methods given are practical, or philosophical. Many of us who are doing this work are some years removed from the time when we became possessed of, or applied our theories. It is a well-known fact that there is a glamour enveloping the past, denser the farther back we go, but giving to all a roseate hue that sometimes quite changes or distorts the picture presented by memory. We see this most obviously in the statements of elderly persons, when relating what *they* used to do when they were young, and how much better things were done *then* than they are now. Old age plays sad havoc with us, and one of the most marked results of his destroying hand is, that the dividing wall between the memory and the imagination is, many times, so worn away that it is quite difficult to determine on which side we really are. So we, sometimes, in strict honesty of purpose, state our imaginings as actual occurrences. Let not my younger friends find fault with this, for while it gives us much comfort, it does no material harm to them.

It is probably true, that no one of our successes in the past, (and we have all had some of them,) is as complete, or as brilliant, as it now appears to us. Fifteen or twenty years ago, when we worked out a certain method, it seemed such a marked success that we were quite convinced we had found *the* way in which that thing should always be done. We judged the result from the standpoint we had then reached. Were we to judge it from where we now stand, the conclusion might be quite different. We are, or should be, far better judges now than then.

Again — although I suppose it is hardly fair to give this all away — a thing may be told over so many times, especially by a person with a lively imagination, that, what with slight, unintentional changes here and good-natured embellishments there, it becomes at last hardly recognizable. You all know how this is yourselves. The results, then, of certain courses, as given by even experienced teachers, must often be taken with many “grains of salt.”

The question may properly be raised, then, Cannot a perfect, an infallible theory of teaching be developed from the philosophy of education? To this the answer must be, *No*. To develop such a theory would require a knowledge of every possible factor entering into the process, and infallible wisdom in drawing the conclusion. Philosophy has done much, is doing much, and will do more, in perfecting our methods of teaching; but it alone gives but “office theories.”

We have now come to the place where the proper office of the training department, in connection with the normal school, can be given. It is the place where the theories and methods taught can be applied, tested, adopted, or rejected, and if adopted, perfected.

Better than the outside mission and the inside council to the divinity school, better than drawing legal papers, the moot court and the police courts to the law school, better than the hospital or the field practice to the medical school, is the training department to the normal school, for it gives opportunities for more diversified observation and fuller practice than any of these.

Yet the mission, the courts, and the hospital are considered necessary adjuncts of the schools to which they pertain, for in these the fact is recognized that the student should begin his practice while yet under supervision, rather than defer it until alone and unaided by the counsel and advice of his instructors, he shall get those severe lessons that come from partial or total failure. If in other professional schools provision is made for practice during the course, how much greater the necessity in ours.

I assume, then, without further argument, that a training department is a necessary adjunct of a normal school—that a normal school without such a department is trying to enact the play of “Hamlet” with the part of Hamlet left out. I believe that it is the most distinctive, and should be the most prominent feature of the normal school. When we remember that so many very excellent teachers have attained their excellence chiefly, if not entirely, through practice, with no systematic instruction on the philosophy of education, or in the theory of teaching, we shall surely not belittle the value of the practice attained, not alone and unchallenged, but under the eye of a cultured, experienced, warm-hearted teacher—one ready to sympathize with both successes and failures; to counsel, to guide, in all; and able to inspire with a love for the work and confidence in ultimate success.

Granting that the training department is a necessary adjunct of the normal school, how shall it be constituted? I answer: As nearly as possible, it should be made up of the same kind of material, with the same grades, and pursuing essentially the same courses of study, as will be found by the young teacher when he takes the field for himself. The only exception to this statement may be made in the matter of the course of study. As the coming teacher is likely to play, at some time, an important part in determining courses of study, he may well receive much illustrative instruction upon this subject.

I am aware that in some normal schools the practice is chiefly or entirely provided for by forming classes from adult pupils, “playing” they are children. With such classes the embryo instructor is expected to proceed as he would with *real* classes in school.

I have never seen this plan secure even a medium success. There are two reasons why its success is doubtful: First, no class of adults can, for any length of time, “play” child, for they will run into the extreme of being either too wise or too stupid; and second, the conductor of the class cannot treat them as children. He is playing a double role: trying to teach them as children, and yet expecting their criticism as equals. But few can suc-

ceed under this pressure. An assumed penitent before the coming priest, an assumed invalid before the coming doctor — both parties realizing the fact — would hardly expect to test the real ability of the one ministering to him. The moot court is the nearest parallel to this procedure, but that, so far as I have observed, although many times amusing, is rarely a great success as an educating agency.

Having the training department properly constituted and organized, each pupil-teacher should have therein two well-defined periods of duty in each grade :

First, There should be a somewhat prolonged period of observation, during which, under the stimulus of a daily quiz, or of a more formal report, which he must defend, he should be led to use (not half-use) his faculties in observing, understanding and properly judging the work done before him. He must here learn to see, through the method, the plan of the teacher, the point of the lesson, the result sought to be attained. This guided and stimulated observation-work is all-important. Admitting the force of the "learn to do by doing," upon which the changes have been so constantly rung for the past few years, we must claim that, before the experimental stage is reached, there should be a wide culture in determining *what* is to be done, and, in a general way, how it is to be accomplished. Had the oculist who spoiled the basketful of eyes received the proper previous instruction, and made even a casual observation of the process used, the basket would not have been needed in the story. I emphasize the point, that the pupil-teacher must be held strictly responsible for this observation-work. Unless he is, but little good will result, and the time may better be used at something more profitable.

As, previous to his observation, he has received most of his instruction in the theory of teaching, he is now reviewing and mastering more fully the theories given. He is seeing them tested, and is compelled to be constantly on the alert, that he may judge properly of their value by their results. In judging of the work of others, he is establishing a criterion by which to judge his own work. One reason why teachers are likely to become opinionated is, that they have so little opportunity to compare their work with the work of others.

Second, there should be the period of practice. Having received and digested his theory, having carefully observed the work of able and competent instructors, having been led to exercise his judgment by comparing the real work done with the theories given, and having learned to look at and estimate at least partially the nature and value of the results attained, the candidate for the profession of teaching is now ready to "try his hand" at the work. Assigned at the beginning a definite work to accomplish, and prepared with an outline of his lesson, he begins. It is the custom in the school of which I have charge to leave him for a few lessons with only such guidance as he may ask, letting him "get hold" of his classes as best he

in, until he shows his native power and bent. Then his work is observed, suggestions are made, his good work commended, and his poor work pointed out, all in a spirit of guiding kindness, until, more or less rapidly, he comes to feel a due confidence in his ability to do the work assigned fairly well. From this time he generally does it well. Not so well that it cannot be approved, for he is constantly improving. He now takes full charge of his class, plans his own lessons, becomes, in short, the teacher of the class. He is now tied to no specific methods. He has studied the philosophy of the work, he knows the end to be attained, and he is encouraged to make his own way toward it. In the after criticism of his work, he must, to the critic-teacher, justify each part of it in every point. Therefore he is careful to make his plan first, and to make one that he can sustain.

And this work is continued until the critic-teachers are willing to certify that he is prepared to take charge of a school. It not infrequently happens that he fails to convince them on this point, and then, whatever may be his scholastic record, he is not recommended for graduation. I have had to say to many pupils, "The school has done all for you that it can. You have received the scholastic training, and have acquired the *theory* of teaching. You have not succeeded in your practice. You have doubtless made a mistake in trying to be a teacher. It is not your fault, perhaps, but is your misfortune, so far as having entered the school is concerned, that you have not that aptness to teach, or that power to hold the attention of your classes, that is a prime requisite for the teacher. You can enter the profession, if you will, through the door of an examination, but we cannot grant you now a diploma certifying that you have taught successfully in the training department, and that we believe you are qualified to teach." In some cases this has been readily, though perhaps tearfully, accepted, and in others it has given an impetus that has caused the pupil to nerve up, and go out determined to succeed, in the face of our judgment. Some of them have, after a few terms of practice, come back to us, shown their ability, and taken their diplomas, making careful and painstaking, if not brilliant teachers. I give this simply to show that, in my estimation, as in our practice, failure in the training department should be regarded as fatal in the matter of graduation, the practice, or application of theories, being considered the crucial test.

If it be asked, "Cannot a determination of this important question be reached during the early part of the course, thus saving the wasted time and bitter disappointment that must follow the decision reached near the close of the course?" I can say that there is usually a pretty clear foreshadowing of the final result, but a prejudgment made from this would rarely be entirely satisfactory to either party.

A more definite statement of what results are aimed at in the practice-work may be in place here. In addition to the point already given, there are other things of great importance to be looked for.

The pupil-teacher here acquires a kind of self-mastery, of great importance to him, and which he has not had the opportunity of acquiring in his mere study. By self-mastery I mean that he gets a control of all his faculties, so that they are his ready servants. He is warned against any marked mannerisms that he may have fallen into. He is led to greater skill in questioning—a skill that can be attained only by extended practice. In this he receives great benefit from the criticisms of his superiors. He is led to impart knowledge in a clear and forcible manner, to use child-language in his work with children, and, above all, he gets perhaps his most valuable lessons in psychology by observing the tendency and growth of the minds with which he is dealing.

I am willing to hazard the assertion that the benefits derived from a few months' practice, under proper supervision, in a training school, are greater than those usually derived from as many years of practice where there is no one to aid and no one to criticize, and that therefore graduates from a normal school may well be considered, in one sense, experienced teachers.

There are two difficulties with which we have had to contend—one, perhaps, local, and the other more general. With large classes of graduates, (and our classes sometimes reach eighty,) it is difficult to find an opportunity for all the practice that is desirable.

Were the training department large enough to afford this, the difficulty would disappear; but then the labor of supervision would be immense. One of the unsettled problems of our work is, How many pupils are required to each pupil-teacher to secure the best results? Carried to its highest point of excellence, would the conditions not be reversed, and the normal school become a department of the training school, namely, the *supply* department?

The other difficulty has doubtless suggested itself to you in the often-asked question: "What of the poor children who are being practiced upon?" It is difficult to secure the same material for these departments that will come to hand in the outside work. The attendance here is usually continuous, and the pupils, under the system I have outlined, acquire a readiness, an acuteness, not often found in pupils of the same age.

There was a time when it was considered a doubtful experiment to take a class of pupils and put them under pupil-teachers for practice. But with us this is now settled. Intelligent people have come to recognize the fact that the teaching done by these pupil-teachers, especially remembering that they are under supervision, is at least equal to, and, many times, far superior to the teaching done by untrained teachers, even though the untrained teacher is backed by years of experience.

The child who has received instruction from a score of teachers, who has been brought into close contact with a score of minds during his course, may not be so firmly grounded in some few things as the one who has been constantly under the same teacher, but he will be far less likely to fall into the ruts, and will certainly have a broader and more comprehensive view of the subjects presented.

In our own school many from the training department go on and complete the normal course. Our observation has abundantly established the fact that those who have had the advantages afforded in this department are more ready in their work, and make better students, than those prepared in other schools.

I have thus briefly presented some of the facts, as they lie in my mind, relating to the office of the training department as an adjunct of the normal school, and have tried to establish the following propositions:

I. The department is a necessity to a normal school, and is the mark of its professional character.

II. It should be made up of the same material as will be found in outside work.

III. The pupil-teacher should have two periods of duty—one of observation, and one of practice.

IV. For both these he must be held strictly accountable by the critic-teacher.

V. A failure in this department should be fatal to graduation.

VI. The necessarily brief practice afforded him here is more valuable than years of practice without guidance.

VII. The department, well organized, affords a fine opportunity for the younger pupils, giving them what they could hardly acquire in any other school.

I leave, as open questions, what should be the relative size of the two departments, and what should be the minimum amount of practice required. There is also much of detail that must be settled by the circumstances of each individual school, upon which I have not touched. In what has been said, I have tried to speak so plainly and definitely as not to be misunderstood. I indulge in the hope that I have presented some things with which you will cordially agree, and I shall be greatly disappointed if there are not others with which you will as cordially disagree.

THE RELATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL TO THE ACADEMIC SCHOOLS.

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The "Relation of the Normal School to the Academic Schools" is a topic too great in scope to find in our brief paper the breadth and justice of treatment its gravity merits. It involves in detail the historic development, present condition and future possibilities of the normal school. Indeed, this is so true that, while avoiding any attempt at a comprehensive, critical analysis, we must enter each of these vantage-grounds if we would secure a clear

view of even the salient points of this question, whose correct solution, I am persuaded, has more to do with the future welfare of our public schools than is commonly supposed.

The genesis of the normal school seems to have been under an ill-favored planet, which a few wise men heralded as the day-star of an important era, while the unregenerate multitude of the educational world, unprepared for the advent of a new dispensation, beheld it with a mild and passive wonder that in time developed into a measure of active hostility; for when did even an educational world fail to quarrel with its greatest blessings if they came to it in a strange guise?

It was pretty clear to boards of management that education was a rare product—perhaps that teaching was a fine art; therefore that teachers ought to be great artists, and to that end should be trained. But right here, like the three men of Gotham, they shipped in frail crafts, and set sail on unknown, troublous seas. Or, they might be compared to men who suddenly find themselves at the head of a great state, with no written constitution to guide them. Pride, that dislikes to confess ignorance, eagerness to lead the way when others halt, and the haste of unduly-spurred judgments, all are sure to enter at such times as these, when men seek the furtherance of a new project. What solution so easy to those who were puzzled as the engagement of a savant to be the autocratic head of the institution? But the powers of the quasi-savant often remained occult, or, revealed, smacked of something less than omnipotence, and as yet no formulated doctrines of educational science could be appealed to to lay down definite lines of guidance for him. I recall such a principal now—a lofty, college-bred man, in the fire of whose scorn a lady member of the faculty one day shriveled into nothingness because she had ventured to use a new-fangled thing called the “word method” of teaching reading, when she was shown that they still had with them the well-tried, therefore scientific, A-B-C method of the fathers.

Professional courses at best could mean little under such administrations. But other factors were to militate against them. It was found that applicants for admission as pupils were ignorant of the very rudiments of science and the humanities. Academic courses, both preparatory and the relatively more advanced, were instituted to meet their supposed needs. Thus it came to pass that the doors turned easily upon their hinges to admit hundreds who had no thought of becoming teachers, and who looked upon these institutions merely as great boons in fitting them for the divers aims of life. It was a restless, irregular, nomadic population; to-day here, to-morrow, like Arabs, silently stealing away never to return. Under such conditions the ideal purposes of the schools, such as they were, became dim visions in the background of everyday routine. Pedagogy was a fleshless skeleton whose dry bones were carefully wired together, and worshipped devotedly for a brief space once a year.

Graduates and undergraduates went forth to astonish a curious, expectant world—and in that, it is to be feared, succeeded. With no great breadth of culture, but with enlarged notions of their superiority over the common herd, they uttered the choicest philosophic maxims with the reckless abandon of a parrot that makes no distinction between the forms of badinage and reverence, and displayed certain artifices or tricks of method with the deftness of one skilled in legerdemain, but, unlike the magician, having full faith in the potency of the trick, although they could not explain its origin or trace its working. The patrons of public schools are proverbially conservative. They look askance on innovations in which they have no part, and at this time were keen enough to detect much of sham in the work of these teachers, while doubtless overlooking things of worth. Ridicule and anger alike found vent, and normal schools fell into disrepute. Thus it ever is: glass in settings of pinchbeck cannot long pass for diamonds of first water in settings of gold.

Such were the errors of organization committed by those who groped in darkness; such the sources of evil practices and harmful precedents of their management; such the pitiful assumption of students; such the blind prejudices and hostility of the public, all of which have come down in the well-nigh invulnerable linked mail of tradition to be arch enemies by heritage of the normal school of the present.

The fundamental doctrine of the normal school has not changed in its essence since it was first stated, but it is more clearly expressed and understood in the present than of old, and the schools, in consequence, have taken a somewhat definite theoretic position in our educational system. But a true theory is one thing, and a practice in accord with it another. It behooves us, then, to scan the normal school as a living factor. To this end, let us begin with a consideration of their academic courses.

Some doubtless think the only true way to dispose of this topic is to simply say that these courses are foreign to the aim of a normal school and should be severed from it entirely; but for reasons that will manifest themselves by implication under another head of my discussion, I venture to assert at the outset that the day is far removed when the true normal school can consistently discard academic work.

A careful examination will usually reveal within a given school a great variation in the relative values of departments of knowledge, as mathematics, language, and science; and comparing school with school, we find that any department has a shifting repute. When the comparison is reduced to separate branches, these conclusions have a marked emphasis placed upon them, and at every turn hobbies and the eccentricities of hobby-riders are suggested.

The courses of study surprise one, because of the remarkably large number of subjects in most cases, the few in others. An inspection of the catalogues of about one-third of the public normal schools of the United States

shows eighty-six subjects in their courses of study. These subjects comprise both the academic and professional courses. The schools, taken fairly, represent the eastern, western, northern, and southern sections of the country; the old and new schools, the large and small. Now suppose that each is a vital subject, as it doubtless appeared in the eyes of the learned gentlemen who gave it place; that the student, according to traditional belief, can take three a term, or nine a year: it would then require nearly ten years to complete the work. Some may say, many subjects are chosen only for mental drill, and therefore that a great variety is admissible. But should we not have agreed ere this, upon the few that give the best discipline? Others may say, that the needs of different sections of the country require different things to be taught in the public schools; but that, I suspect, would be to admit at once that the public-school courses are themselves indefinite in purpose, and that this is but another case of the normal school taking pattern after them, instead of shaping them to a true ideal standard. Other proofs are not wanting, however, to show the absence of logic and a consensus of judgment on the part of those who have shaped our normal-school courses.

Many subjects are foreign to these courses. Surveying, analytical geometry, calculus, Greek, and the evidences of Christianity, are examples of such. How great the majesty of that purpose which can thus combine the curricula of polytechnic schools with those of theology, and present them as a fit training for teachers of elementary schools, I shall not undertake to say.

There is often no logical sequence followed in the presentation of subjects based on their natural correlations. Such subjects as botany and zoölogy, chemistry and physics, are treated according to some inscrutable law of convenience which, while permitting them to wander through the course like homeless mendicants, seldom allows them to come together.

I have already called attention to the wide range of subjects in the schools at large; but if that were cause for surprise, the number crowded into the curriculum of a single school is simply astonishing. The question deserves your most earnest heed. Such a condition can bring about but one result—an extreme brevity of time for the study of each branch. Take, for illustration, the subject of physics. It is entirely new to the student. He is given, let us say three months to master it. Now, counting twenty days a month and the possible length of the daily study-period one hour and a half, our student will have ninety hours for the complete mastery of his subject; for advance lessons, reviews, and examinations are all to be included within that time. Think of the large number of abstruse topics in mechanics and molecular physics he must grapple with in that time; and he must accomplish the feat, too, while contending in like manner with the difficulties that beset him in the pursuit of two or three other branches. Indeed, this is not all: a subject is often reduced to two or three recitations a week, or a minimum of thirty-six hours, in place of the maximum of ninety

just stated. In what high repute do you hold that science whose rudiments can be conquered in such brief space? Or if the rudiments, to be of educational value, are written reasonably large in your estimation, what say you of the policy which thus leaves the pupil inevitably in a labyrinth of bewildering ideas? For one, I reverently thank a kind Providence that the labyrinth often passes away like a troubled dream before he becomes a mental dyspeptic, or a physical wreck.

The academic courses nominally vary from one to three years, and it is significant that where the training is most needed the courses are the shortest. Moreover, the limits indicated are apparent rather than real. For in some normal schools classes are entered every term, and the students, consequently, are continually tempted to do extra work, in order to graduate with the classes just ahead of them. But the custom is not confined to these schools alone; it prevails in those entering classes once a year. In those cases, students attempt, not infrequently, to do two years' work in one, and come out, sometimes, broken in health, usually innocent of knowledge in many things where they should be fairly proficient. As to the classification, it is hardly necessary to say that it becomes a disjointed medley.

But who are these pupils that come out together at graduation? The typical ones on entering were: High-school graduates, the country-school teacher with a low-grade certificate, and his pupil from the district school. The equation of their merits, made on graduation-day and based upon length of training, runs thus: 8 years lower-grade city work + 4 years high-school work + 1 year "professional" normal-school work = at best, 6 years of the same length in ungraded-school work + 2 years normal "academic" work + 1 year "professional" normal work = as before, 6 years ungraded work + 2 years normal "academic" work + 1 year normal "professional" work + one or more terms experience in teaching. The sturdiest mathematician among you will ponder this equation long ere he becomes able to free it from inconsistencies; but if the catalogues do not make overstatements, the best of the students thus equipped are fit to be principals of high schools and superintendents of systems. As to the qualities of their successors, whom they themselves may train, we may surmise profoundly and keep eloquent silence.

To weigh the "professional" courses of normal schools is no difficult task. It leads us to conclusions similar to those reached touching the more purely "academic" work. I would not be understood as saying, that in none of the schools laudable results are attained in this direction, but candor compels me to declare, that so far as my own observation extends, the number of such schools is small. For the pupil, a hazy vision of the field of consciousness, with the darkness of midnight brooding over the special quarters of ethics and logic; a brief dalliance with the principles of pedagogy, and a reverent look at the remains of its history; a few jottings of methods; a few hours of humiliation under the lash of the critic-teacher; a few days chained to the galley of practice-teaching;—thus the story is told.

If the content of courses is to be studied with solicitude, the characteristics of the instructors who deal with them are of far greater moment. This is a delicate subject to handle. To leave it void of offense is scarcely possible; yet to pass over it in silence were arrant cowardice. These instructors often enter upon their duties with the dimmed recollections and non-sympathetic attitude of their childhood toward the common schools, whose welfare should be the center of their thoughts. They seldom, or never, visit these schools, to remove the vagueness and prejudice of early years, and to study their needs; as if they were foreign to all their aims and obligations. Some, by their bearing, seem to place themselves in a higher caste than that to which the teachers of common schools may belong, and ask, "Shall we mingle with such as they?" To whom has this indifference, with its occasionally added grain of contempt, not at some time and in some manner become audible?

As nearly as I can determine, forty-four per cent. of the normal instructors of the United States never taught in a country school, and fifty-one per cent. never in city schools. Again, twenty per cent. never taught in a public school of any kind; therefore the schools for which they fit teachers must be somewhere in the border-lands of Utopia. In the matter of their own education, sixty per cent. of the instructors have been trained below the college. Not considering grammar and kindred grades, and counting the academy and high-school equivalents, the average training for this sixty per cent. is less than two years of nine months each in the high school, plus less than two years of the same length in the normal school; or, in other words, less than a full high-school course, or a full normal-school course of four years. The instructor, too, is frequently a product and pet protégé of the institution itself, who, if he has not native assumption, is apt to acquire it under the forcing process of a lavish praise; but whether he possesses it or not, he lacks that experience without which the instructor labors in vain.

Working in the line of such courses and under the tuition of such instructors as I have described, the students of normal schools must fall far short of the mark of that high calling to which they should be called. They go out with a certain exterior polish, but the vivifying powers are not in them. Art has lacked inspiration, and instead of great artists, they have become artisans working mechanically by measure and rule. We who have folded our hands supinely and placed unlimited confidence in Father Time, believing him to be a benign old gentleman whose kindly scythe would cut down the noxious weeds choking the tender plant of our hopes, must be grievously disappointed when we compare the students of the present normal school with those of the old. Many chapters in the book of its progress are gilt-edged fictions. They who are ever ready to tell how much larger now is the percentage of normal students who graduate and engage in teaching, might study to better purpose the weaknesses that mar their

daily work in the public school. Nor should they forget to note the large number of undergraduates who do not teach, or whose teaching, confused by the mingling cross-lights and shadows of reason and unreason, is a calamity rather than a blessing. More than this: they may discover many young people of ability in every community who do not respect normal courses because of these things, and therefore do not seek them.

Creed says that only the natively strong should be permitted to fit for teaching. Practice seems to go out into the highways and by-ways and gather in the intellectually halt, those that have eyes but see not, ears but hear not, the old and the young, without an over-nice regard to previous moral color and social servitude.

Creed declares that pupils must take ample time to win an education. Practice replies that in two or three school years evils shall be banished from the heart and intellect and the regenerate go out to lead innocent, toddling childhood over the hard places so that youth shall be valorous in life's struggle and old age be blessed on its downward way.

Creed asserts that the normal school shall be for the healing of our educational system. Practice brings into the normal school all the evils found in the schools they ought to lift up; smattering courses, illogical sequence, cramming, the worship of dead symbols, conscious and unconscious clinging to the everlasting *ipse dixit* of authority.

Creed demands high ideals and ample time to attain them. Practice speeds the students on a wild race for marks of standing, and engenders in them an endless longing to get through and bear off a diploma that *per se* shall be a sesame to open every door of success.

And this creed and this practice are the children by adoption, say what we will, of the normal school of to-day. Viewed as an economic system, it can show a great waste of money, time, and energy. So it was born, such have been the years of its infancy and youth; but whether it will have aught but a dwarfed manhood does not yet appear.

I have said things that may bring forth flat contradictions. Very well. But let him who undertakes the task remember that, in all this rebuttal, assertion cannot set aside the plain facts of history. Not in enmity, but as one who pleads for a cause near to his heart, have I stated so plainly the weaknesses of the normal schools as they appear to me. I would that each and all of us might quell every petty feeling of selfishness to accept the truth as it is spoken, and with a common purpose turn to the solution of the whole problem of normal instruction.

Let us heed no more the fictitious strength of large enrollments; let the tinsel, the glamour, the pageant of commencement-days, pass from before our eyes; but in all soberness let us study the hidden life, and we shall discover, if we have not already, the fatal ills preying upon the heart of this system.

The dawn of new life must come from within; it cannot come from with-

out. It is to descend from above downward; it cannot come from below upward. These are truisms continually on men's lips; but none the less they lead to this one fundamental, comprehensive, unchangeable proposition: the source of the normal schools' troubles and achievements alike is and must ever be *intra* not *extra organic*. Yet, whenever the normal school has been criticised for sending forth inefficient graduates, it has retorted: "Let the lower schools give us better students, and we will then give them better teachers." As well ask the callow fledgeling to find food for the mother-bird, and to shelter it under its embryonic wing. Never has a more fallacious plea found utterance, and it is unworthy of the institution that claims its right to exist purely on the ground that it is to be the vigorous *alma mater* of these lower schools. Historically, the normal school never has been evolved from them, and never can be. Its historic growth, root and branch, derives its only nourishment from the changing sentiment of the higher circles of educational intelligence. Unfortunately the evolution of this sentiment as a passive belief has far outrun its involution in practice. That is to say, the men who control normal schools are much sounder in doctrine than bold in action. They shrink from reforms which might arouse the sleeping lions of popular prejudice. They persuade themselves that they must wait until popular sentiment shall have come abreast of their own ere it will be wise to remodel the normal system. Such persuasion is the voice of timidity and not of reason. Popular sentiment is called into existence and cherished by successful activities, and not by the faint-hearted expression of a dogma opposed to it. This has been demonstrated again and again on the floors of our legislatures when the public representatives have impatiently denied an increase of support to the normal schools, while declaring them leeches that drain the financial strength of the people, but give no adequate return.

The times plead eloquently for a renaissance of the normal-school system. Were I asked to foretell the elements of its golden age, I would reply in a summary of what I have already said.

1. Its academic courses must be of the highest character, in every particular, as to choice, sequence, time, and treatment of subjects.

2. Its professional courses must transcend the dead letter of philosophy, and be all aglow with its spirit.

3. No student must be considered for entrance who does not expect to teach, and only such retained as seem, after fair trial, sufficiently strong in all respects.

4. If students come from high schools, and other institutions, they must be held to complete the courses they find, when superior in any degree to those they have had, and this in the face of harmful precedents and mistaken courtesies.

5. No hurry must be permitted in completing courses; in particular, upon the basis of that most specious argument that it is wrong not to let one graduate who is so near the end, and who, failing now, cannot return again.

6. The instructors must know the public school by experience, and possess both breadth of education and depth of sympathy suitable to their calling.

Until these things are brought to pass, there can be no true relation between the normal and academic schools which will make either one the recipient or giver of strength to the other.

We have met to-day where in vision we seem to stretch hands through the Golden Gate to clasp hands that have not felt the thrill of kinship for centuries; and what guerdon do we bear them as the fruition of these centuries? How much of free thought for superstition; original thought for lead formalism; brotherhood for cruel rigor of caste; peace of soul for bitter sighings for Nirvanah? The fruitage of the centuries compared to what it might reasonably have been under a wise culture, seems but apples of Sodom. But we need not turn our eyes away from home and kindred. Men and women of the South, you who still sit by the dead embers of the family hearth and weep for the fathers and brothers who, with the fathers and brothers for whom we weep, sleep side by side on many a hard-fought field, behold the struggle of race that made them foes is with you yet, forever threatening social revolution. Men and women of the East, so wont to dream in classic halls and dwell in Rome, arouse yourselves! Come back in thought to where your droning mill-wheels and whirring spindles ceaselessly turn to the dull round of a human destiny; to where the hum of marts grows more impetuous year by year, and men are crushed by thousands under the commercial Juggernaut; to where misery and vice find deeper and still deeper haunts in your spreading cities. Men and women of the busy Northwest, cease your toil of brain one little moment to note the children of twenty monarchies sitting down in your midst to play the game of life, with American civilization for the stakes. Men and women of the Pacific, whose feverish hands clutch the golden heart-strings of the mountains, relax the grasp, and view your portals standing wide open to admit the restless Bedouins of the land, who have pursued across the continent the illusive phantoms of a material heaven. Then each and all of you, with minds made serious by meditating the social problems of class, go out to-night into the streets of this fair city by the sea, and read under the glimmering lights upon human countenances the individual chapters in life's serial story. Trace the lines of harshness and care across the features of the financial magnate; the sullen rebelliousness of the underpaid, begrimed mechanic; the social pride and imperiousness of the lady whose home is a palace on the avenue; and the tearful despair of her lowly sister who, weary with ill-requited toil, seeks her wailing infant in the dingy, unwholesome attic of a tenement. Thus prepared, remember that the children of this motley host must shortly, in harmony or discord, wield the mastery of our beloved republic, and that in these years of tuition the public school must be to them father and mother and sister and brother, and perchance the very Messiah

of a social empire whose boundaries we dare not place. Let no one say lightly then, that what has been, what is, and what may be, are not alike clamorous for a greater sincerity and aggressiveness in the reformation of its auxiliary system, the normal school.

DISCUSSION.*

GEORGE L. FARNHAM, of Nebraska, said he had heard, for thirty years, much destructive criticism of normal schools, but that little had been provided in the way of remedies. At the risk of appearing as another iconoclast, he asserted that we had failed in not differentiating our work from that of other schools. Our course is too full, the variety of subjects now taught too great, and the time given to the course in most normal schools too short. Instrumentary studies at least should not be cut off with too little attention, and we should take more note of things practical in each branch.

JOHN W. COOK, of Illinois, totally disagreed with the conclusions of the paper, and thought that if they were true, normal schools would better be blotted out of existence and the very name effaced from the language. But he did not believe them. In his experience normal schools had proved an inspiration in the states, and had even stirred the dry bones of the colleges. It is true that normal-school students are inferior in culture to those of higher institutions, but they realize their limitations and resolve to be students for life.

MR. LIGHT, of Pennsylvania, never saw, nor heard of, any such normal schools as the one described. Eastern normal schools do solid work. He wished to enter a protest against any such conclusions as those arrived at by the paper.

CHARLES H. ALLEN, of California, thought the picture was a "composite," and such a normal school as the one described was not to be found on the earth, in the heavens above, nor in the waters beneath.

IRWIN SHEPARD, of Minnesota, thought such criticism salutary, and felt that there was much in the paper worth pondering upon. While it is true that normal schools have been an inspiration, it is nevertheless true that they have their weak points.

MR. KIRK, feeling that the truthfulness of the paper had been called in question, stated that all facts set forth in it had been obtained from normal schools themselves, in reply to questions sent them by himself while preparing the paper.

* Reported by the Secretary.

PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.



DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, July 18, 1888.

The Department of Superintendence met in Saratoga Hall, at 3 o'clock P. M.; N. C. Dougherty, of Illinois, presiding.

The President's annual address was delivered.

J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, then read a paper on "Efficient School Supervision."

The discussion was opened with a paper by Mr. Chidester of Kansas, and continued by R. K. Buerhle of Pennsylvania, John Hancock of Ohio, and M. A. Montgomery of Mississippi.

The following committees were appointed:

On Nominations—W. R. Garrett of Tennessee, C. S. Young of Nevada, and I. G. Hoitt of California.

On Resolutions—J. M. Greenwood of Missouri, W. C. Dovey of Nevada, and R. W. Stevenson of Ohio.

The Department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

The second session of the Department was held at the same place, at 3 o'clock P. M., July 19th; the President of the Department, N. C. Dougherty, in the chair.

C. B. Gilbert, of St. Paul, Minnesota, read a paper on "The Ethics of School Management." This paper was discussed by J. M. Greenwood and others.

The Committee on Resolutions offered the following report, which was adopted:

Whereas. The Bureau of Education at Washington has been the means of accomplishing efficient service in the cause of popular education in the United States, and of collecting the largest educational library in the world, as well as one of the most complete pedagogical museums, and such collections are now preserved in rented rooms, wholly inadequate to meet the growing demands of the Bureau; therefore, be it

Resolved, That, in order to further the work for which the Bureau was organized,

this body here assembled, representing all the states and territories, do most respectfully petition the Congress of the United States to erect a suitable building to be used exclusively for the benefit of the Bureau of Education.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be forwarded to the President of the Senate and to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, with a request that the same may be brought before the legislative departments of our National Congress.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

President—Fred. M. Campbell, Oakland, California.

First Vice-President—C. C. Davidson, Alliance, Ohio.

Second Vice-President—George Luckey, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Secretary—W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Georgia.

The report was received and adopted, and the gentlemen declared elected. The Department then adjourned.

W. R. THIGPEN, *Secretary*.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

N. C. DOUGHERTY, PEORIA, ILLINOIS.

Those of us who for the first time have crossed the continent to attend this meeting have been impressed as never before with the extent and the greatness of our country. What Utopian dreamer, what poet, soaring in the high regions of his fancy, could have imagined two centuries and a half ago the beauty, the power, the majestic sweep of the stream of human life which has poured across this continent? Who can have dared to hope that the exiles who sought here a home for the Christian conscience, were a seed, the least of all, which was destined to grow into a tree whose boughs should shelter the land, and bring refreshment to the weary and heavy laden from every part of the earth? Who could have thought that these fugitives from a tyrant's power would in a little more than a century grow into a people able to withstand the onslaughts of the oppressor, and to abolish forever within their border despotic rule? Who could have had faith that men of different creeds, speaking various tongues, bred in unlike social conditions, would here coalesce and coöperate for the general purposes of free government? Above all, who could have believed that a form of government, rarely tried even in small states, and when tried found practicable only for brief periods, would here become so stable, so strong, that every hamlet, every village, is self-poised, and manages its own affairs? The achievement is greater than we are able to know; nor does it lie chiefly in the millions who, coming from many lands, have here made homes and found themselves free; nor in the building of cities, the clearing of forests, the draining of swamps, the binding of two oceans, and the opening of lines of rapid communication in every direction. Not to numbers or wealth do we owe our significance among the nations, but to the fact that we have made knowledge free; that we have shown that respect for law is compatible with civil and religious liberty; that a free and intelligent people can become prosperous and strong and preserve order without king or standing army; that the church and the state can move in separate orbits and still coöperate for the common welfare; that men of different races and beliefs may live together in peace; that in spite of an alarmingly rapid increase of population and of wealth, and of the many evils thence resulting, the prevailing tendency is to sanity of thought and sentiment, thus plainly manifesting the vigor of our life and institutions; that the government of the majority,

when men put their trust in God and knowledge, is in the end the government of the good and the wise. Need I say that the basis of all this has been the common school?—that through the general intelligence made possible by it we have been able to show that enthusiasts, who would overthrow everything, have no abiding-place or influence in the affairs of a free people, as volcanic and cyclonic forces are but transitory, and superficial in their action upon the earth. We have shown, in a word, that under a popular government, where men are faithful and intelligent, it is as impossible that society should become chaotic as that the planets should dissolve into stardust. It is difficult to realize what an advance this is on all previous views of political life; how full it is of promise, how accordant with the sentiments of the noblest minds in every part of the world. It gives us the leading place among the nations which are moving along rising ways to higher and freer life. And it is the result of our system of public education. The great underlying principle of this system is that men are brothers and have equal rights, and that God clothes the soil with freedom. And this has given us a more wide-spread sympathy than ever existed before, a greater desire as a people to run to the relief of all who suffer pain or wrong.

Increasing knowledge of human life as it is found in the savage, in the barbarian, and in the civilized man, fixes us more unalterably in our belief in the march of progress. The savage is hopelessly ignorant, and therefore weak and wretched, since ignorance is the chief source of man's misery. From ignorance rather than from depravity has sprung the most appalling crimes, the most pernicious vices. Our intelligence has enabled us to lengthen human life, to extinguish some of the most virulent diseases, to perform surgical operations without pain, to increase the fertility of the soil, to make desert regions habitable, to illumine our cities and homes at night with the brilliancy of the day, to give to laborers better clothing and dwellings than princes in other ages have had. It has opened to our vision the limited sidereal expanse, and revealed to us a heavenly glory which transcends the imagination of the inspired poets. Before this new light the earth has dwindled away and become an atom, as the stars hide when the great sun wheels upward from out the night. We have learned how to walk secure in the depths of the ocean, to soar in mid-air, to rush on our way unimpeded through the stony hearts of mountains. We see the earth grow from a fire-ball to be the home of man; we know its anatomy; we read its history; and we behold races of animals which passed away ages before the eye of man looked forth upon the boundless mystery and saw the shadow of the presence of the infinite God. Words that were never written have whispered to us the dreams and hopes of peoples that perished and left no records. And the more we have learned of the past, the more clearly do we perceive how far the present age surpasses all others in knowledge and power. And all this is the result of the old education in the mechanical and the material world. The course of life is onward, and enthusiasm for

The past cannot become the source of great and far-reaching action. As in each individual there is a better and worse self, so in age there are conflicting tendencies; but it is the part of enlightened minds and generous hearts to see what is true and to love what is good. The faultfinder is hateful both in life and in literature; and it is Iago, the most despicable of characters, whom Shakespeare makes say, "I am nothing if not critical." The criticism of the age which gives a better understanding of its needs, is good: all other is baneful. Whatever we may think of the past, whatever we may fear or hope for the future, if we would make an impression on the world around us we must understand the thoughts, the methods, the purposes of those with whom we live, and we must at the same time recognize that the mind of man is unchangeable, but that the point of view varies not only from people to people and from age to age, but from year to year, in the growing thought of the individual and of the world.

EFFICIENT SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

J. M. GREENWOOD, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI.

At the request of the President of this section, I will tell, in part, how I supervise the school-work of Kansas City.

Any one familiar with school management understands that there are three very different kinds of school-work to be performed by the superintendent or principal of a school, namely: 1. Office-work; 2. School-work; 3. Outside work.

Office-work includes all those duties of a clerical and other character required of a superintendent at his office. It is here that he consults chiefly with principals, teachers, parents, and pupils, and plans his work. Perhaps I can better illustrate this kind of work by going through a routine description for one day. The schools are in session, and it is Tuesday morning. I go to my office at about 7:30 A. M. Here I remain till 9:00, or 9:15 A. M. While at the office I attend to any business that may come to my notice, from sending out substitutes to readmitting mischievous boys.

If any teachers are ill, and cannot go to their schools, they telephone me, and the vacancy is supplied. During the intervals I look over my mail, or write, or read.

I then leave the office, and go to a school; all matters now are in charge of the clerk, and if anything unusual occurs, she telephones me, at the school, for advice.

Going into a school, I try to put aside everything like authority, or superiority, and to approach the teacher in a proper spirit of helpfulness.

Then, I endeavor to see the school from the teacher's standpoint, and, if necessary, to have the teacher see her school as it appears to me.

WHAT TO DO?

1. I go in quietly. 2. I watch the teacher and pupils awhile, usually until the novelty wears off. 3. Sometimes I conduct a recitation, with the teacher's permission, and thus bring out points in which she may be deficient; or, simply to test the knowledge that the pupils have of the subject. 4. If suggestions should be made to the teacher, I do so privately, or request her to call after school. 5. Depending upon the peculiarities of the teacher, the conversation must be directed in such a way as to benefit her. If the teacher be "heady," frequently the most efficacious remedy is to let her alone for a few days, and when her room is badly demoralized, help her straighten it out. Of a dozen teachers in a building, no two can be helped precisely alike. I think the question may be put in this form: *Given the teacher, the school, the defects; how to improve them?*

Knowing the teacher, the school, the defects, improvement depends upon the skill of the superintendent and the tact of the teacher to apply the proper remedies. If the teacher is deficient in natural and acquired qualifications, or the superintendent does not know what to do, and how to do it, one or both would do well to seek employment elsewhere.

SIGNS TO LOOK FOR.

1. Common sense. 2. Good health. 3. General scholarship. 4. Critical knowledge of the branches. 5. Order. 6. Ability to manage hard cases. 7. Power to teach. 8. Power to develop thought in the pupils. 9. Routine teaching. 10. "Reciting-post" teaching. 11. Skill in questioning. 12. Skill in fertility of resources. 13. Energy and vigilance properly directed. 14. Pleasant voice. 15. Disposition to antagonize pupils. 16. Power to gain the good-will of children without spoiling them. 17. Disposition to scold and to grumble. 18. Attention to pupils reciting and also to those at their seats. 19. Neatness and cleanliness of room, desks, etc. 20. Ability to secure cheerful and thorough work by the pupils. 21. The tendency to waste time doing nothing laboriously. 22. Variableness in teaching. 23. Steadfastness of purpose in teaching. 24. Disposition to take care of school property. 25. Ventilation of school-room, and looking after the children's health. 26. Tact and skill in adapting new methods in teaching. 27. Originality in management and in methods.

Sometimes I jot down items that need attention and hand them to the teacher, but whether I write them out or speak to her of them, I speak first of whatever good I may have observed in her work. Above all things, a superintendent must be fair, honest, and candid with his teachers, and inspire them to greater efforts in their work. There is an inspiration which comes from personal influence, and this I regard as the essential element in

school-teaching. I want teachers to have unbounded confidence in themselves—confidence that they can do well whatever they undertake. They work then, because it is a pleasure.

Very much of my time is devoted to visiting schools and inspecting the work. The good teachers do not need so much attention as the poor ones, but it is proper that the superintendent should call upon the best as frequently as possible. Sympathy and interest work wonders in transforming a school-room. If in visiting a room, I find many serious defects, I ascertain the causes, and then I go to work to remedy them. In case of a young or inexperienced teacher, I do not point out too many faults at once. Discouragement takes all hope out of the teacher's life. It is far better, in case of irremediable failure, to be frank and honest with a teacher than to find fault, and suggest no good remedies. As long as a teacher will try, there is nearly always hope. Scolding a teacher is outrageous. No good ever comes of it. The teacher needs help.

An agency of great value, is our monthly teachers' meetings. Here we meet and compare opinions, and discuss them, either in sections or in the general session. Such meetings have a good effect upon the teachers themselves, and are a great preventive in keeping down that feeling of rivalry which sometimes springs up among the several schools of a large system. At these meetings, the superintendent has good opportunities for finding out the strong as well as the weak points of principals and teachers. Essays and discussions are revealers of thoughts and emotions, and frequently show phases of character that are oftentimes concealed in the school-room.

The superintendent should avoid haranguing the teachers, and lecturing them in regard to duties. A cave of wind is not much better than a fog-bank. If the superintendent has read a good book recently, or found out something valuable in teaching, he can refer to it. Announcements should be made, and directions given, in an appropriate manner.

Class exercises may be employed for the purpose of placing the best in any school before all the teachers; and this is an excellent plan for introducing new methods without wasting time in fruitless discussion. Nothing succeeds like success.

The superintendent should be of an inventive turn of mind, and among his corps of teachers he can always select a few whom he can safely trust to try new experiments in school-work, and these can be induced to exhibit their methods to others. The spirit of rivalry ought to be generously cultivated among teachers, and if one can teach her little children to write with pen and ink, others are not willing to remain long in the rear.

Pushing headlong into the field of experiment is fraught with danger. Careful experiments indicate progress and not stagnation.

Returning to routine again, when the schools close in the afternoon, I go to my office, and remain till 6 P. M. These two hours are filled with inter-

views and other office-work. In one sense I am a sort of mill—grinding out everything.

It has always been my plan to encourage the teachers to come to me with their troubles, and to aid them in all possible ways to do their work in a satisfactory and pleasant manner. As to prying around and fault-finding, that seems to me a way to create distrust and suspicion, and a general letting-down of all discipline and teaching. Cheerful work is secured by trusting, and then directing along certain lines.

Schools are elevated just in proportion as teacher, principal or superintendent can substitute better views and methods for poorer ones, without making any noise over the change, just as a good vigorous hill of corn will outgrow the weeds about it, and overshadow them. Too many, I think, spend all their time in plucking up noxious plants, and not in planting anything in place of the uprooted weeds. If a bad habit is overshadowed, it is by the growth of a better habit in its place. A vacancy is not much of an improvement over a bad habit.

OUTSIDE WORK.

I am employed by the board of education to look after the schools. Consequently, I do not trouble the members of the board, except in very extreme cases. They watch the business matters, and I look after the schools. In my opinion, many principals and superintendents weaken themselves in running to school boards for advice upon every conceivable subject.

There is also another factor—the public, which requires considerable attention. In some communities the public must be educated, and in communicating with the public it is safe to assume that nothing is known, and that you must write or speak as if starting from first principles. Three things should characterize the dealings of the superintendent with the public: He must be fair and just to the teachers, to the pupils, and to the parents.

The superintendent is really the financial head of the school system in regard to building school-houses, and in deciding what apparatus, etc., are needed. He must stand between the people and the board of education, and unless he has financial ability in this respect, I consider him weak. Many school men have no money-sense, and they get school boards into all kinds of inconvenient and uncomfortable positions. Sometimes, explanations are hard to make. Perhaps we have been more severely taxed than any other city in the United States, to meet a condition of things not existing in older and larger cities, upon the question of school accommodations; and those who have not had a similar experience cannot realize what superintendents in rapidly growing towns are forced to meet, and to decide upon, when the expenditure of large sums of money in grounds and buildings becomes necessary. The superintendent must tell when and where school-houses are needed, and the board purchases the sites and erects the buildings in accord-

ance with his recommendations. He should interpose to prevent needless expenditure of money.

If I have made large requirements of a superintendent in managing a school system, it is because I feel confident that he should possess all the essential qualifications that I have described. He should plan his work far in advance, and crowd the work, and not let it crowd him.

DISCUSSION.

M. CHIDESTER, Wichita, Kansas: The title of the paper just read would indicate that there may be school supervision that is not effective. However this may be, it is a generally accepted fact that, as a rule, school-work will not be effective without proper supervision. Another thing in this connection is true as well. All good teachers are not fitted to be good superintendents—no, not all, even, who have been found willing to try it. As there are qualities of mind, habit, and disposition, peculiarly fitting one to be a successful teacher, but which form no essential part of a superintendent, so there are qualities and qualifications that enter into the composition of the ideal superintendent that are not necessarily found and included in the successful teacher. In these few remarks I desire to call attention particularly to those qualifications which, it seems to me, are necessary in the superintendent, in order to insure effective work in the schools; also, by way of contrast, to mention a few things sometimes found, but which I do not consider necessary, things to be looked upon as obstructive rather than essential.

In regard to the work he has to do, I would say:

First, the supervision must reach the schools, and not exhaust itself in preliminaries and ceremony. It must reach its destination with its force unexpended. Giant intellect, great scholastic attainment and immaculate theories only in the brain of the superintendent, will not avail much unless connection is made with the schools. There must be an avenue of communication for these qualities. The giant intellect must have a business side to it, the scholarship a practical turn, and the theory become only a means to an end, before those conditions are secured which form the basis for effective work. When scholarship is reinforced with practical knowledge, so that it is recognized as having influence at the working-points—the various school-rooms—then the first step will have been taken towards rendering the work effective.

Second, in order to reach the schools there must be a system of communication, and adequate arrangements. The superintendent must reach the schools through organization as well as through visitation. While I would

not undervalue the wholesome effect of personal visitation for purposes of observation, and as a means of encouraging and inspiring the school, yet I do not place upon it that high estimate given it by some. My idea is, that, to be in the highest degree effective, the supervision must come in a way less conspicuous and ostentatious. Especially will this be true where there are a great number of schools to be looked after. The idea that one person can properly illuminate all the ramifications and obscure places of even a small school system by his immediate presence only, is a mistaken one. It would be a small system indeed that could be properly lighted up in all its parts by direct radiation merely, even if the superintendent possessed the candle-power necessary to do so. And supposing he did, there are still many objections to doing it in this way. For instance, such transcendent brightness in the superintendent would so blind the pupils that they would be unable to see the regular teacher—a calamity not altogether unknown in the annals of school history, as it is, and which, to say the least, would be out of harmony with my ideas of the best plan for effective school supervision. Again, his absence under these conditions, or the withholding of his effulgent rays, might seriously complicate matters, as well as greatly embarrass all efforts to accomplish anything in the comparative darkness that would naturally ensue. Having once enjoyed the benign influence of his presence, pupils and teachers would be unable to proceed very fast or very certainly under the light of their own faculties only. Of course I do not say that the superintendent should not possess the power to illuminate his work in a proper way. I mean only that it is not necessary, nor even best, that he should have a monopoly of that peculiar ability. He should thoroughly supervise the system, but should not be all there is of the system. He may, if he pleases, be the center around which it all revolves; the attraction to hold it in place, and the power that compels each member of it to follow his own proper orbit; but at this point the figure should end. He must not, as the further application of it would indicate, be the only luminous body in it.

Suppose we were to follow out such a figure in all its details, we should have the teachers opaque, giving no light of themselves, and reflecting only a small portion of that of the great central luminary. They would always be found presenting a full, round, radiant disc to their superior, and reflecting back his brilliancy upon himself, but in fact always half immersed in the darkness which they themselves would create. To the other planets, and those whom they would light, they would present various phases, as position and circumstances should decree, but would be fully radiant and well rounded out only to those who stood nearer their central orb than they do themselves. How delightful then would be the sunlight that would pour in once in a while on a school, when such a teacher would step aside, remove her shadow, and allow the pupils to bask in the splendor of such a superintendent! How genial his presence! How manifest his superiority! How he

thrills them with his warmth, and what a resplendent orb does he appear to them to be! There is, henceforth, no question as to the indispensability of that superintendent. Teachers without him would be simply valueless. In fact, they are almost valueless anyhow, with him as a standard. It is he that is the *sine qua non*, the Alpha and the Omega, the prophecy and the fulfillment, the all and in all of his school system, and without him there would be nothing.

Now right here I take occasion to remark that a superintendent can be too great. The school is lost sight of in gazing at him. There is no doubt that some aspiring and ambitious persons prefer the solar system planet-teacher plan from a desire to advance their own personal interests. They consider it the shortest and easiest way to elevate themselves, their great purpose being self-aggrandizement. Of course their teachers are to remain non-luminous, for only with teachers of this kind can they shimmer and pose and display themselves to advantage, talk of higher education, delight admiring listeners with fine phrases, please the children, and, by means of them, the parents, relegate the teachers to a position of obscurity and complete subordination, bring themselves into prominence, become known as educators, command a good salary—and *do nothing*. But all this is not to prove that supervision is not necessary. It is only to protest against what might be called *supervision*—against such a method of exercising it as shall laud and aggrandize only the superintendent—such a method as elevates him in the minds of the pupils at the expense of the teachers who do the work. Any method that takes the prestige from the teacher and encourages the pupils to look beyond her to see a superior, is wrong in principle. Supervision must be accomplished in a different manner, as well as for a different purpose. Instead of being a blazing sun conspicuous above all others for brilliancy, trying to light up everything by the direct radiation of his own lustre, he should be more in the nature of a dynamo, a power to make light for others, but not himself to shine. Out of sight itself, occupying no part of the crowded streets and busy rooms it lights, this modest piece of machinery quietly furnishes the energy that accomplishes the result. The lamps gleam and shed their lustre, and we speak of their brilliancy and efficiency.

All this while the dynamo—the real source of it all—is hardly thought of. Located in some out-of-the-way part of the city, shut in between dark walls, were you to start out to look for it you would scarcely find it, so inconspicuous is it. Yet, when found at last, how potent it is! What a mighty force it generates and sends out so silently from its somber solitude! See those wires radiating from it, and extending to the uttermost parts of its responsibilities. Along those copper nerves is being conveyed an energy, a potentiality, equal to that of a hundred horses, and yet so silently that they give off no sign to discover their presence. It reaches the arc where it can manifest its power, and behold, a lamp made brilliant and like the sun

for brightness. It will be unnecessary to carry this figure further. Suffice it to say that the lamps are the teachers; the wires, the organization by which they are reached. The busy throng who are served, and for whose benefit they were placed there and are maintained, might aptly represent the pupils. As the lamps are at the points where light is needed, are conspicuous, seeming themselves to be the source of it, while the dynamo in some less prominent place is as well out of mind as out of sight, so the teachers, occupying the points where the work is to be done, should also be the prominent parts of the system, and should seem to be the source and fountain-head. The superintendent, meanwhile, conscious of his power, should, in a spirit of self-abnegation, imitate the dynamo, and himself seem not to shine. True, teachers may and should recognize whence their inspiration and power comes, and thinking people also will know and give credit, but pupils should not be taught to go beyond their immediate perceptions. Let the light, so far as they are concerned, emanate from the teacher. Let the superintendent be content to have it so, and have only the good results to show for his labors. This plan may not heap honors upon him, nor magnify him quite so much in the estimation of the masses, but it will be effective in the direction of the aim of every true teacher and superintendent—the uplifting and upbuilding of the schools.

R. K. BUEHRLE, of Pennsylvania: I would include the twenty-one or twenty-four points of judging of the qualifications of teachers in enthusiasm and common sense; the one might be called the steam-power, the other the engineer directing the machine. Supervision implies oversight, and this implies that the field should not be too large, or too complicated; even the building of school-houses, and the expenditure that the city will bear, are rather *out of* than *in* the line of the superintendent's sphere of work. Of course, he should be consulted—if he possesses the confidence of his employers, he *will be* consulted—in regard to the character of the buildings to be erected for school purposes. His work, preëminently, is with the teachers, the schools; for efficient means amounting to something—doing good. To be able to do good implies a knowledge of mind, and how it is affected by knowledge; what knowledge—that is, what kind of education—society demands; what it will bear—for what is wanted in one kind of society, in one city, will not do in another, for as you, Mr. President, have said in your opening address, the point of view is constantly changing. But his work is, preëminently, the qualifying of the teachers for higher and better work. This implies greater personality, not morality; morally, teachers as a class are all that could be desired, but they lack in scholarship, and this will be the case as long as greater inducements are not held out in the way of pecuniary rewards. Hence, the superintendent must be an educator of teachers, not merely in methods, but in branches of knowledge, to enable them to sit in judgment on their methods, criticize them intelligently, and to invent better. He will occasionally have among his teachers those who can

assist him in this work, from whom the other teachers will gladly learn. But he must direct, he must suggest, and he must organize the work.

The whole discussion of literature in the meeting of the National Educational Association left out of view the fact that the teacher must possess a thorough knowledge of literature before better work in that department can be done.

Fault-finding must sometimes be indulged in; nay, not only fault-finding, but absolute prohibition, before better work will be done by some teachers. All changing from worse to better requires a struggle, suffering, pain.

As to rivalry, I cannot agree with the writer of the paper. Our experience has been such that we have discouraged rivalry, because the consequences have been evil. We have refused to publish percentages. We have told our teachers that the result of their teaching—of their work—cannot be tabulated, cannot be even seen on paper, but will be seen in their lives after they leave school, perhaps only in the future life. We say that the best work, the building of character, is the chief concern. Those who are regarded as best teachers in our city are not those whose pupils have the highest averages, nor those who promote the greatest number to the higher grade, but those who do effectual work with the *least* as well as with *most* promising pupils. Such teachers we have, angels of mercy, who follow the neglected children to their homes and elevate even there. How will you register and exhibit such work, such heart-throbbings, which the angels might envy?

JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio: The chief difficulty the superintendent has to contend with is not in detecting faults in methods of teaching and the management of pupils, but in finding a remedy for them. For instance, to change the voice of a teacher who has been for many years teaching in high, disagreeable tones, to the pleasant voice spoken of in the paper, is well-nigh impossible. And to induce a teacher to leave her long-used mechanical methods, and turn herself to those productive of thought, is almost equally difficult. Again, it is hard for teachers to cease to regard their pupils as a collection of abstract units, and come to look upon each one as a separate living being, having its own individuality, to be taught and managed in accordance with this individuality. To aid in the accomplishment of this last, the superintendent must respect the individuality of his teachers. The great teacher, as all know, is not so much the one who teaches well, as the one having in him the forces of inspiration. The superintendent can accomplish no great work unless he has the ability to arouse enthusiasm in his corps of teachers. One means of doing this, is a generous recognition of all good work done by these teachers, giving ungrudging praise where praise is deserved.

M. A. MONTGOMERY, of Mississippi: The aim of every superintendent should be to express such thoughts, and such only, as can be made of practical value to the members of this Association. It is possible to say a great

many pretty things about superintending schools, without saying anything to really help anybody. Help is what we need, and this we must have. This can be had only by each man's expressing himself clearly on things that he has actually tried, and has also found successful. Visionary schemes are of no use. We all have these. Long sets of rules and formulæ may only confuse. Theory is good in its place, but it must be capable of standing the test in practice. To be brief, three things are essential to a superintendent: (1) He must be thoroughly acquainted with the kind of work he wishes to do. (2) He must be *alive* to the duties and obligations of a superintendent. This requires that he shall be at least in love with the profession which he has chosen, even if he is not an enthusiast. (3) Success requires that he shall in no sense discount or discourage the real work of his teachers. This requires that he shall neither create antagonism between his teachers, nor in any sense take the part of the pupil against the teacher. This last is to be avoided by making all criticisms of improper teaching so that the teacher may make the correction herself. This reaches the desired end without either destroying the authority of the teacher or creating in the pupils a lack of confidence in the ability or knowledge of the teacher.

The superintendent must himself be a teacher, but as a rule he must reach the pupils through his assistant teachers, with whom he must be in perfect sympathy. The teacher's work may be said to begin and end with the pupil, but the superintendent must have to do with pupils, teachers, boards of trustees, and parents, studying the interests of all, without doing injury to any, enlivening the entire mass without losing energy himself, being a perfect master of the entire situation without robbing anyone, not even a single child, of that independence which, properly cultivated, is the real source of all true manhood. A superintendent is presumed to know his work better than anyone else knows it, and when the test comes he must consult his own judgment and rely on the justice of his own decision, trusting the results to the future. If he was right, he will grow in power and in the wisdom to use it; if wrong, he may profit by his own mistake. Under the eye of each superintendent will continually arise things for which he has no guide. These test his efficiency. His own sense of what is right must be his rule, and to the results he must appeal that he may know whether he was really right or wrong.

THE ETHICS OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

C. B. GILBERT, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA.

Public schools are in no sense a public charity. The state educates her children for herself. On no other ground are schools at public expense justifiable. The making, through training, of the perfect citizen should, then,

be the aim of school systems. The perfect man and the perfect citizen are identical. The perfect man is not as yet a drug on the market.

The children with whom we have to deal are so affected by the blood of their ancestors and by the environment of infancy and early childhood, that perfection can be only an ideal aim. The best that perfect schools can possibly do is to develop perfectly and symmetrically the natures that come to them. This involves physical, intellectual and moral training. It is to the intellectual that most of our efforts as teachers have thus far been directed, whereas the moral is of infinitely greater importance to the man and state; and it is illogical, suicidal for a state to educate the intellects of children and leave their morals untrained. But fortunately for us, this can never occur. Morals are always trained for good or ill. Environment more than aught else determines their bent.

Character is not built, it grows; and it grows through exercise usually unconscious. Consequently, for the training of the moral natures of the children in our schools, no new machinery is needed; no new course need be added to our already overcrowded curricula.

I am not prepared to say that systematic instruction in the elements of virtue may not be introduced into our public schools with advantage, though at the present time I know of no system whose advantages do not seem incommensurate with its concomitant difficulties and disadvantages.

Precept and preaching doubtless have their place in moral economy, and yet they are at best only minor factors, acting very indirectly in the formation of character. The social and moral tone of a generation, the ideals held and incorporated into life by its average man, in short, its atmosphere, together with its blood, determines in the main the moral status of the next.

If this be true, the first requisite of a good school is a good tone, a wholesome moral atmosphere, a well-directed, well-lived life, so that the child continuously practices the virtues that he will need after he has left school. If this requisite be met, we have that on which we may place a firmer reliance than on any course of ethics however profound, any verbal instruction however apt and able.

While this may be generally admitted as an abstract truth, it seems to me that just here is our greatest weakness. School management does not in the main secure for the children such a practical exercise of virtue as will make them in after life strong in its maintenance. School regulations are narrow and technical; school morals are *sui generis*. School life is petty, unwholesome, weakening. This, then, is the subject of this paper—the ethics of school management. How can we in the management of our schools furnish such an environment and such a life as shall make practically certain moral improvement in the children?

We must consider, then—first, what kind of character should we aim to

develop? Second, how far do our schools at present develop such character? and third, what can be done to improve them?

If, then, schools were omnipotent over the characters of the children, what kind of characters would they develop under our present system, and what kind should they develop? Have we incorporated into our systems ideas essential to the making of the ideal citizen? If not, what is he, and how can we produce him? It has been held, from time immemorial, that obedience, implicit and unquestioning, is the first and most important virtue to be implanted in the minds of the young, as the foundation of all other virtues. This is still largely held, and is made the basis of our systems of discipline, so called, whereas I hope to show that it is really their bane. Obedience is not only not the highest of virtues—it is not a virtue at all. A virtue is essential, and is always a virtue. Obedience may be and often is a vice. It is the foe to progress, the secret of persecution, the bulwark of priest-craft and imperialism. It is safe to say, that out of unwise obedience to human authority, and its unwise enforcement, have grown more evils than the disobedience of all the rebels of history has begun to cause. The former is the father of lies and hypocrisy, the latter of intolerance, oppression, persecution.

I do not deny the usefulness nor even the necessity of obedience. Society must exact it, schools must have it—not because it is virtuous, but because it is expedient. But it must be dethroned from its lofty place in our schools, as it has already been in our American social and political system. Indeed, in schools it will usually take care of itself. Nothing needs be said about it, and very little thought about it. As with the laws of nature, children will soon find out all that is of importance in it. When necessary, it should be enforced, but it should be seldom necessary. Teachers need not tremble at the thought as though about to lose their authority. Such a treatment of the matter will not cause anarchy, but order; will not render students disobedient, but more than ever obedient. We need never be afraid of truth—it never yet destroyed a good. Young people in school are very hard to hoodwink. Moral distinctions that puzzle theologians are often quite clear to them, not because of their superior wisdom, of course, but because of their freedom from sophistry and the power of tradition. Ordinarily the boy or girl in school, as much as his elder in society, has a perfect right to know the reason for commands to which he must submit; and the wise teacher, while not brooking insolence, will yet recognize the right, and will not provoke to wrath for the sake of proving authority. More than that, the proper development of the child's character requires that he should know some reason for his conduct as soon as he is able to comprehend, and should base his actions upon this as a motive rather than upon the will of another.

This is not Russia, but free America; and if our schools are to make citizens capable of perpetuating free institutions, they must inculcate something

higher than a spirit of obedience, something broader than all mere expedients.

The first thing, then, for us to seek to develop in the child is self-control for wise ends, subordination of his passions and his actions, not to the will of another but to his own, and this for good ends clearly understood. It involves two elements, wisdom and power, the former to be gained somewhat by precept, but more by experience in a proper environment; the latter to be acquired wholly by exercise. For the wise man whose motives are noble and whose self is under the control of his will, law is unnecessary. Law, in the sense of restraint, is for would-be criminals. We need citizens who need no law. Law is also necessary for the ignorant, including children, as a guide and a teacher during development.

To this end, laws should be as simple as possible, and of such a nature that they will never be felt or consciously obeyed after the moral sense is sufficiently developed to be in itself a guide to right action. It is a wise provision of nature that the scratch of a pin irritates the body; so it is a wise provision of nature that a law not evidently for the good of those subject to it irritates the mind. This should be taken into consideration in the management of the young.

There is a still higher virtue than self-control essential to the perfect man and perfect citizen—self-sacrifice. This is simply an outgrowth of the former, and is merely a control of self for the good of the community. This sacrifice of the one to the good of the many is, and must be, to a limited degree, enforced by the state; but thus enforced it is not a virtue, and offers no bright outlook except as it indicates a majority of self-sacrificing citizens sufficiently large to control the self-seeking minority. Control of self for the general good, particularly and practically known as public spirit, is the highest virtue of the citizen, and is developed "not under law but under grace."

These two principles, which are really one, constitute the sum of the virtues which schools should implant and cultivate in the youth. Do our public schools make such men? My answer would be, only partially. While perfect success may not be looked for, still I feel confident that a much higher degree could be reached under a more enlightened system, a system more nearly in consonance with the social and political systems in vogue in this country.

This does not imply that teachers are lacking either in conscientiousness or in interest in the moral welfare of their pupils. I do not believe that a more earnest or conscientious body of men and women is to be found connected with any profession. The majority of teachers sacrifice time, personal interest and health to conscience and to disinterested work for the young. Nor do I believe that they are to be compared with the members of other professions in slavish adherence to useless precedent and form. Still they are to altogether too great an extent bound by the same chains,

so that in the moral vastly more than in the intellectual fields of their labor their efforts are paralyzed and the results minimized by the power of tradition, and our schools do not do their best in ~~in~~planting the virtues necessary to free citizenship. The proof of this statement is to be found in the woeful lack of self-control commonly to be observed in young people just released from the restraints of school life, and the excesses in which they so frequently indulge; so that we commonly expect that it will take two or three years of contact with the world to bring graduates to their senses. This same lack of self-control is often also sadly apparent during school life itself, in the extremes to which students will go when temporarily freed from authority, so that the thoughtful teacher is often sadly distressed by the evident growth in the pupil of vice, not virtue; of weakness, not strength; of dishonesty, not honesty, notwithstanding the administration in frequent and generous doses of both precept and punishment.

I make bold to assert that this failure of our schools to develop good character is due in the main not to laxity of discipline, but to its severity; not to the existence of too few rules and regulations, but of too many; in fine, to a total misapprehension of the purpose of school rules, and to their mal-administration for personal, erroneous, traditional ends. Two standards of conduct prevail for use, one in school and the other in the larger world, widely differing in spirit and detail. These must either cause confusion in regard to moral distinctions, with the inevitable tendency toward the sinking of higher to lower standards, or they bring one of the systems into contempt.

May I be pardoned if I illustrate from personal history? The writer's first experience as a teacher was in a school famed for the strictness and excellence of its discipline. It should be observed that I use the word "discipline" in its ordinary or cant rather than its true sense. In this school the boy was incessantly under the strictest surveillance; the teacher's eye was ever upon him. Boy and teacher had each other for breakfast, dinner, and supper, for work and play, for religious services, and even sleep. The boy was a natural criminal, never to be trusted; the teachers for the most part were young, ardent, conscientious, and filled with love for their work and the boys, yet they were utterly powerless to counteract the debasing influences of a devilish system. The fetich whispering—communicating thought, exercising the power which distinguishes man from the lower animals—was considered not merely as Hon. Hiram Orcutt would have us believe it, "a school vice," but a positive crime. Boys were even prohibited from talking while at their meals, thus having removed from them one of the chief agencies of civilization, and being remanded to the condition of the brute. At meal-time they were seated in a long dining-room at tables so small that they could reach what they needed without the necessity of communicating with their neighbor, and there they sat and ate like pigs, while at each end of the room a swineherd, the teacher, was posted in a high chair watching

their movements. If they dared to make a remark they were remanded for punishment. Of course if they were left for a moment alone or with a weak teacher, the wildest disorder prevailed. On Sunday the boys were marched to church in dead silence. He who whispered entered a temporary purgatory on Monday. And yet the school was intended to be and in many respects was humane. Many pleasures, at great expense, were provided for the boys. Punishments, too, were at once very mild and intensely cruel, if you can admit the paradox. The boys were obliged to sit in delinquent session until their time of punishment had expired. The penalties ran the gamut—five hours, ten hours, twenty-five hours, one hundred hours, until I almost wonder that some of the perpetual delinquents did not commit suicide. In this delinquent session they were allowed to do nothing, not even study, but must sit with folded hands and think for the entire session of two hours, frequently day after day for months. What thoughts may have surged through their minds I leave the hearers to imagine. Sometimes when the number of hours charged against a boy had accumulated until they seemed endless, he was put to bed, often for a week at a time. His clothes were taken away, no books were allowed, and he was fed upon a meager diet, until at the end of the week he would come out little better than a living skeleton. The effect of all this can readily be perceived. The boys who had been longest in the school were almost invariably the worst. Of moral basis there was almost none. Fine, manly fellows were reduced almost to desperation by the perpetual nagging and watching and moral pettifogging. Little boys six or seven years old sent there to be made men, were turned out with all the elements of the criminal fully developed. The condition of these little fellows was often heart-rending. Many a night have I sat upon their beds after they had retired, while they put their arms about my neck and talked to me, and I “mothered” them as well as a big, awkward young fellow could. Yet the principal and proprietor of the school was a man of exceptionally kind heart, who was merely the slave of his vicious system.

The only pupil who has, so far as I know, since distinguished himself, was one of the New York “boodle” aldermen of recent fame. It was in this Yankee Dotheboys Hall that I acquired my hatred of petty “discipline,” and my firm conviction that it results in vice and moral infirmity only, and that if any good men and good women are sent out from under such systems, it is not because of their influence but in spite of it, and that the only way to make a man or woman is to let the boy or girl live and grow morally as he does physically. It is true that this is an extreme case, and yet we must go to extremes to see the tendencies of times or institutions. It is astonishing how the power of a pettifogging system increasingly asserts itself upon those it once possesses.

Rules in schools exist for two objects, technical or local, and moral or general. The latter are seldom formulated, and do not need to be. It is in

the promulgation and enforcement of rules for technical purposes that most of the evils in school morals are produced. Here it is that the teacher finds himself bound by a chain of tradition and precedent that few have the courage or strength to break. Let us consider a few of the offenses against which school laws are usually enforced, and see upon what grounds they are based. We quote from Hon. Hiram Orcutt in a monograph on "School Discipline," issued by the U. S. Department of Education:

"Among school vices, as they have been classified, are idleness, whispering, disorderly movements in the school-room, injury to property, and rudeness of speech or act in the intercourse of every-day life."

Dr. Orcutt's classification will doubtless be accepted by the majority of teachers as correct, and with one or two exceptions I suppose it to be so. But these exceptions are all-important, as they are the points upon which, commonly, the greatest stress is laid, and the treatment of which is responsible for an endless amount of trouble, wasted energy, insubordination, and the confusion of moral standards. I refer especially to the second, whispering. Probably upon no point in school discipline are teachers so bound by prejudice, so enslaved by false views, as with regard to the evils and treatment of this human habit of communication among pupils in school. So extreme is the view of the majority, that pupils are forbidden the exercise of this God-given power even while walking together through the halls or when sitting doing nothing in general assembly. To its suppression teachers bend all their energies, waste their teaching-powers, forfeit the coöperation of their pupils in the securing of good order. For the average student will never be convinced that communication is, under all circumstances, unjustifiable for him any more than for his teachers and elders generally. I have even seen a student censured for courteously and quietly asking pardon of a fellow-student for an accidental annoyance.

Now what kind of order is essential in school? Simply that which ordinary courtesy and business principles require in all places: quiet attention to business when business is in hand; at other times, such courteous conduct as should prevail among gentlemen and ladies in all gatherings. This is all. By following these two principles, the maximum of good manners, good morals and good work, with the minimum of friction, will be produced. These principles will doubtless be accepted, but it is claimed that "whispering" violates these principles. This I deny. Of course an excessive amount of talking, or talking when the rules of politeness require silence as when a teacher or some pupil is addressing a class in recitation, or such talking as will disturb those who should be studying, would violate good order. But these extremes do not necessarily nor usually follow freedom of communication. It frequently, in school as in business, becomes advisable if not necessary for one to communicate with another. If this can be done without disturbance, it is better that it should be done than not. No method is so disturbing as that technically known as "by permis-

sion." The teacher is hearing a class to which all his energies, his undivided attention, should be given. A pupil finds it necessary to communicate with his neighbor. Up flies his hand. If the teacher does not at once observe it, snap go his fingers until the teacher's attention is distracted from his class. The petition is then put and explained, the teacher weighs the considerations presented and gives or refuses to give his consent, then endeavors to recollect his thoughts and return to his class. How much better for the student, in a quiet and business-like way, to attend to his own affair, disturbing no one, and with no feeling either of guilt or of exultation at having circumvented his teacher, and then as quietly to return to his work. The most studious, the most enthusiastic schools, and those having the best and most reliable spirit of order and courtesy that I have ever seen, have been those in which a rational communication between rational beings was not forbidden. Prohibited it can never be. If not open and harmless, it is sure to be surreptitious, and hence evil. This is but one of the useless and harmful rules prevailing in our schools; but it will serve the purpose of example. Some time since, with a view to ascertaining the customs and opinions of leading teachers upon some of these points, I sent a circular-list of questions to the principals of the high schools in the larger cities of the United States. One reason for limiting the investigations to high schools was the fact that here the most information could be obtained in the smallest space, as most of these high schools cover a period of four years in the child's development, contain a large number of teachers and yet have a unity of system, making it possible for the principal to answer for his teachers, while no such uniformity ordinarily prevails in systems of schools as such.

To these questions a large number of answers have been received, all, with one exception, entirely courteous, and most of them manifesting much interest in the investigation. The usefulness of the results is impaired, first by infelicity of expression in some of the questions causing ambiguity in the minds of those who answered them, and because some of the questions asking for facts of experience are in many cases answered from theory, as is evident from the incongruity between these theories and some of the answers which do state facts. In the main they show an encouraging liberality of sentiment among these teachers, often going far beyond the described facts of their own management. The questions are as follows:

1. What do you consider the objects of rules in the government of schools?
2. What rules do you find necessary?
3. What do you think of "communicating" during school hours?
4. What behavior do you require, (a) in school-rooms when no exercise is in progress? (b) in halls and corridors?
5. What in your system is treated as reprehensible on the part of students?
6. How far can you rely upon the student's sense of propriety?

7. Do you notice great differences in the reliability of students of different ages?

8. Does the difficulty in the management of students increase or decrease as they advance in grade?

9. What do you do aside from regular class-room exercises to develop an *esprit de corps*?

10. What do you find the effect of your system to be upon the character, self-reliance, and honesty of your pupils?

11. What do you find the most serious difficulty in governing your school?

12. What do you consider the proper relation between the standard of conduct in school and that in the world outside?

As the summary of the answers would occupy too much time and space, I will simply and briefly state some of the most useful deductions and conclusions that I have drawn from them.

About sixty per cent. believe that all communication between students in school should be prohibited; twenty-two per cent. believe that it should be restricted by special rules; while only eighteen per cent. believe in freedom in this respect. Yet sixty-five per cent. state that they have no rules, or merely simple general regulations. This proves that liberality in sentiment has outstripped liberality in action, or rather, that liberality as yet is but a vague impression which few are willing to be without, but which is not sufficiently definite to materially modify systems. It may be somewhat like Civil-Service Reform, a slumbering principle in which all have a tentative faith, but whose awaking no politician desires. But this is the common history of reforms. Principles diffuse themselves slowly, almost unconsciously, until, suddenly, the orthodox and conservative with astonishment find themselves harboring views which if carried to a logical conclusion would upset completely the old foundations and the old life. Often the only difference between the conservative and the radical is the fact that the radical logically lives his belief, while the conservative waits for the radical to win the battle, and then is ready to hurrah and take his portion of the spoils. To show that this is still the situation in the management of schools, let me cite another instance. Although, as already stated, sixty-five per cent. of those answering my questions stated that they had practically no rules, yet forty-four per cent. do not allow pupils to carry on conversation, even of the simplest sort, in the common halls and corridors of their buildings. Now, I mention this matter of communication simply as an illustration, the most common and most readily suggesting itself, of the vicious lack of liberality and of harmony with our national, political and social system found in our schools. There are many more that might be mentioned, such as trusting no student's judgment in regard to school right and wrong, and treating the natural ebullition of youthful spirits as crime, not to be merely easily and naturally checked, but to be severely punished. Here, also, belongs that military precision of movement so often insisted upon. The answers to the

question, How far do you rely upon the student's sense of propriety? are still another instance of the lack of agreement between fact and theory above referred to. Relying upon a student's sense of propriety is a very different thing from "putting him on his honor," as the phrase goes. The latter usually consists in laying down some stringent and unnecessary regulations, and going away for a time and leaving students alone, to see if they will obey these regulations as when the teacher is present; and the sequel usually consists in the teacher's endeavoring, often by some questionable method, to ascertain whether the pupils' "honor" has been able to stand the strain. I have known of teachers, after thus putting students on their honor, to peek through the key-hole, or over the transom, to ascertain results. Now, doubtless, a spirit of honor is a most important element of character. The only criticism to make upon this method is, that it seldom cultivates such a spirit. Many a bright boy and girl will question whether honor requires obedience to laws whose wisdom and necessity he does not admit, during the teacher's absence, any more than during his presence, when fear rather than honor is the ruling motive. Relying upon a student's sense of propriety is a very different thing from this. It both trusts the student and throws upon him the responsibility of his own conduct. The fact is, ignorance of what is proper in school is really rare, and needs no code of published laws any more than do the proprieties of the church, or theater; and in one place as in the other, the intelligence and good-will of the majority are entirely sufficient for the education of the minority. Of course, this is not true of those technical and as it seems to me unnecessary restrictions which constitute the large majority of school-rules. This, too, is made very evident from the "answers" above mentioned, which show clearly, that where technical restrictions were the fewest, there the greatest reliance could be placed upon the pupils' sense of propriety. Indeed, I make bold to assert, that in most cases of so-called "disorder" in school, the rule is the direct cause. It both suggests the disorderly act and furnishes its motive. Where rules are many, and petty, there their violation is frequently the most courageous, brilliant and popular thing that a student can do; and under these conditions, real proprieties are quite as apt to suffer as imaginary ones. But the "fun" is all removed when the student is merely violating his own sense of the fitness of things, without the "smartness" of breaking a rule. Many rules exist for the nervous or weak teacher. These cannot secure the coöperation of the children. Many more owe their existence to the power of tradition. Tradition does not bind the child.

Many teachers would be horrified on going into an assembly of students waiting for the opening of school with no teachers present, to see them all sitting and conversing as freely and in as orderly a fashion as their elders, while waiting for the curtain to rise. They are talking; that is not good order. These same weak-kneed persons see nothing but confusion and anarchy in five or six hundred high-school boys and girls going up and down

stairs and walking through the halls, talking, laughing, unconscious of disorder, and innocent of the thought to make it, simply going about their business as their elders would do, provided their elders were as bright and well-mannered as the children; and all this without the warning eye, or even the presence of a teacher. This is not disorder—this is order; this is moral training; this is the exercise of the virtues, *bonhomie*, courtesy. Compared with this, the straight and silent line marching from class to class with measured step in time, with a teacher at every turn and every landing keeping down the spirit of mischief and the “Old Harry” which the very restraint stirs in the boy, and which at every opportunity will make itself manifest in some silly or some rude act—this is disorder; this is the cultivation of dishonesty, of moral weakness; this confuses ideas of right and wrong; this makes criminals. The school-room where is heard the quiet noise necessary to work, where all is intense, where teacher and pupil are in perfect sympathy, where each attends to his own duties; thinking of no rules, fearing no censure; where is no feeling of oppression, where is no grave-like stillness which makes the pupil and teacher want to scream, where the gift of speech is exercised in its legitimate way, where even laughter is no crime, but teacher and pupil alike laugh—here is character built. Here are made self-reliant men and women. Think, too, of the teaching-power saved by this broader system. In the average school-room, under the older system, the teacher’s chief thought is, How can I keep my room quiet? how can I glue up my children’s mouths? (I have actually known of a teacher pasting court-plaster over the mouths of children to keep them from talking) how can I force them to violate their natures?—not, how can I best awaken their minds? how can I secure their sympathies? how can I develop independent and reliable moral power? Compel your children always to do what is unnatural and you will make them either slaves or criminals. It is evident that in a system wisely aiming at the development of character, the difficulty in the management of students should decrease as they advance in grade. They should gain power through exercise. In only about one-half of the schools from which answers were received does this seem to be the case. I marvel that the percentage is so large. The older the student, the keener his judgment in regard to the value of lines of behavior, consequently the more he chafes under unnecessary and unwise restraint. At the same time the student’s knowledge of the proprieties should increase with age, and if restraints are only such as proprieties require, his submission to them becomes more entirely voluntary.

Perhaps the greatest evil resulting from the current system of discipline in schools is the confusion incident to two standards of conduct, one for school and one for the larger world. Why should the youth on leaving school find that the standard of conduct to which he has been obliged to conform, has for him no longer any value? The period of youth and education is none too long for the cultivation of the common and necessary

virtues. Why should precious years be wasted in teaching conformity to a standard whose value ends where the effects of such training should begin to make themselves most strongly felt? Worse than this negative effect, a positive injury is done. Devotion to non-essential details does in time destroy the power to make nice moral distinctions. If whispering and lying are treated as equally heinous crimes whose violation is punished with equal severity, how is the student, so far as our instruction of him goes, to know the difference? As has been already said, either one of the standards is sure to be brought into contempt or distinctions are obliterated. Such discrepancies as this are to be found in the answers before mentioned. In several of these it is stated that courteous conduct is the sole requirement, and yet in these same schools pupils are forbidden to communicate in the halls. What bright boy will believe that silence is of necessity gentlemanly, that to say good-morning to a companion boy or girl in the hall is rude and not, as he has been taught at home, a mark of courtesy? A large portion of our school rules are sheer nonsense, and the pupils know it. The *bete noir* of many a teacher is noise, always a nuisance, always a crime. Why, noise is often the mark of a good digestion, good spirits, good brains, and good conscience—and students know that. They also know that at other times noise is wrong, discourteous, unendurable. You take the common-sense universal view on the first point, and the student will take as high a position as you wish upon the second. But you insist upon the vital truth of what he knows to be pure bigotry, and ten to one he will insist upon violating even your perfectly just demands. We too seldom stop to consider what is the real harm in what we have been wont to believe wrong, or whether it may not even be good undiscovered. Like the child who half a century ago looked wistfully at the fragrant love-apples of her mother's flower garden and longed to eat that whose very odor agitated her salivary glands, but refrained because she was told those beautiful fruits were poison, until some wiser botanist discovered that tomatoes were good to eat; so the over-tired teacher, worn out with her ineffectual efforts to restrain and twist out of shape nature, longs to yield a little and work with, rather than against, the forces of the Creator, but checks herself and wearily continues her conscientious but useless routine of "Johnny, stop whispering," "Willie, walk on tip-toes," "Kate, if you want an eraser, come to the desk and ask me," and never dreams that some future teacher will disregard these trifles and will find her school a garden of delight, because, all intent and eager, conscious of no chilling feud between themselves and their teacher, they work together naturally and easily and joyously for moral and intellectual development.

Treat trifles as trifles, and then you can treat mountains as mountains and the school will help. But tell the children that mountains and molehills are equal obstacles to progress, and they will laugh at you.

I have only room within the limits of this paper to make a few suggestions in the form of inferences from what has been already said. See to it

that all your regulations are sensible, having some practical or philosophical motive perfectly clear to yourself. Disregard tradition and precedent, unless fortified by your own unbiased judgment. Remember that legislation is at best but a feeble corrective both in society and school, and that unwise legislation is the source of untold evils. Never lose sight of the fact that the development of character, not present convenience, is the true end of moral discipline. Place all the responsibility possible upon students. Encourage them in the organization and management of independent concerns, such as debating societies, journals, and the like, and do not interfere too much in these things. Hold them responsible for results. Enforce obedience when necessary for the good of the school, avoid the necessity when possible. Do not in any case make too much of it as a principle.

Instruct students as occasion or necessity offers in the proprieties, on broad principles of human rights and obligations and of Christian philanthropy. Especially do not make general rules to cover specific cases. Deal with students individually and with offenses as they occur. If one student commits an offense do not punish the whole school by treating them all as possible criminals in the same line, or as in sympathy with the offender. There is the source of infinite trouble, friction between pupil and teacher, loss of the moral support of the school. The weak teacher, upon the occurrence of an offense, at once takes alarm and seeks to guard against its repetition by the enactment of laws covering similar cases. The strong teacher treats it as an unusual occurrence and strives to reform the wrong-doer, relying largely upon the good-will of the school.

Above all, do not be afraid of your own doubts or beliefs. If you have a vague, blushing, half-idea that a more liberal system than the one you have been using might be better, do not be afraid of it. Do not stop to investigate whether any other school has first tried it. If you do, you will never begin. If you begin, do it thoroughly and logically. Let it be seen that you are honest, and mean business. Do not refuse to accept all the logic of your theories, including the corollaries. A half revolution is often weak. A thorough revolution is strong. Let the reform of your service be above the power of "political necessity" near or remote. And do not be frightened or discouraged or think your school going to pieces if liberty is turned into license at first by some of your pupils who do not understand your motives, and to whom self-control, except for the avoidance of punishment, is unknown. These things will inevitably happen. It takes time to educate a school, as it does a nation, up to the point of self-government. But remember, this education can never be obtained in either case except by the practice of self-government. Obeying laws laid down by others is only a very small portion of self-government. Treat students as you expect them to treat you. These suggestions, if heeded, will certainly aid in making the ideal school. And what is the ideal school? The ideal school, as it seems to me, is the school in which good conduct is made a matter of principle, the

standard being the unwritten laws of morality and propriety which everywhere control good society. It is the school where teacher and pupil recognize that they are there for a common purpose, the amelioration of the pupil; where restraints of which both cannot easily perceive the value are not made a barrier between them; in short, where order is not thought of except as a means to an evident end, and where character is formed as it always is, by unconscious exercise. Sympathy perfect and unchilled between teacher and child prevails in the perfect school. Mr. Orcutt, after enumerating school vices, says in regard to the discipline of good manners: "This subject, which our fathers seem to have regarded of great importance, has been fearfully neglected in these latter days. As a consequence, our children in the family and school practice only rudeness and insubordination. To such an extent has this department of education been neglected of late in our country, that we have received merited reproach from other nations. We may here draw the contrast between the old and new civilization. The old was distinguished by a proper regard for all the courtesies of refined life; the new can boast of nothing but incivility. The rapid decline of good manners in our times appears most evident when we compare the practice of our fathers with their degenerate grandchildren. The old civilization recognized the 'bow' and 'courtesy' as tokens of respect. They have ever been so regarded, though sometimes used as mere signs of recognition. In the rural districts the bow and courtesy have been regarded as evidence of good breeding, and as the expression of proper reverence cherished by the young for their superiors. Alas! that the sign and the thing signified have nearly passed away! The expression of genuine politeness and deference which were met in every cultivated family and good school in the days of the distinguished Dr. Edwards, have given place to habits of coarseness and incivility, and the 'sir' and 'madam,' which were always used by the children in the genteel family as a title of respect for parents, have, with the bow and courtesy, passed away. And where now do we find that gentleness, politeness and ready obedience which characterized the children in their relations to those whom God had placed over them in their own homes? In those days, under the direction of parental authority, children kept their places, regarded their instructors, and observed all the little acts of civility which throw a charm around the family circle. Not so now. Rudeness characterizes all their movements at home and in school. With their heads covered, they lounge about the house, intrude themselves into company, interrupt conversation, dispute with superiors, and make themselves disagreeable in every way. At school, the bound and scream which follows the word of dismissal remind one of incipient savages; and in the streets the teacher may not expect from schoolboys, as a rule, respectful attention and courteous behavior, but rather insulting words, and even snowballs or mudballs, if he chance to come in their way." I am prompted, in spite of my pedagogic dislike for slang, to remark that this is all the purest "bosh."

This may be the condition in some schools with which Mr. Orcutt was acquainted. I have seen it, too, but it certainly is not common. But I do not doubt that the cause was to be found in the failure of the teacher to make the student believe him a friend. Possibly, not because of his own fault, but because the system in vogue required the teacher to put such restraint upon the pupil that the child could not recognize the teacher as a friend. Certainly such a state of things cannot exist in our ideal school. When a street hoodlum gets into our school, one of the first evidences of its civilizing power is his removing his hat on the street as he meets a teacher, not because he is told to do so, but because he has unconsciously grasped the idea of courtesy. In these days, Young America is continually charged with lack of reverence, lack of respect for elders, lack of courtesy. I believe this to be absolute libel. If you doubt the truth of my opinion, try treating your pupils with the same degree of courtesy that you expect from them. On the street, in the school, always and everywhere, have respect for their judgment; believe in their general uprightness of purpose, and make your faith evident to them, and I predict that you will never more have occasion to complain of their lack of courtesy to you.

The great argument for a more liberal system of government is to be found, not in the freedom from petty annoyance gained by the teacher, not even in the increased energy set free for teaching, but in the growth in moral power of the student. Even a vicious student cannot live for a series of years in an atmosphere of self-respecting, self-regulating, earnest, and honest work, without improvement; and very few pupils in schools are vicious. The effect of such a system upon a child who is willing, even without definite purpose, to make the most of himself, will almost inevitably be to make of him such a citizen as will many times repay the state for the cost of his education.

Nor is our ideal school an imaginary thing practically impossible. There are such schools, though they may be few. And if their number is but increased by one, the author of this paper will feel himself more than repaid.

DISCUSSION.

MR. GREENWOOD, of Missouri: Two points should be kept distinctly in view. (1) No sound scholarship is possible without close and severe application. (2) The child must learn the great lesson of obedience to constituted authority. It is in the school-room that the child gets his first notions of justice. He finds himself here subject to laws which he must respect, or suffer in consequence of disobedience. The primary object is to teach him

self-control. To allow him to go as he pleases is subversive of that restraint which the will of the teacher should impose.

Whispering in school under the teacher's sanction is a dangerous experiment, and leads straight to demoralization.

Limitations are imposed because the child needs to behave himself, and this can come only through self-denial.

There must also be an orderly way of doing school-work. The child's first duty is to put himself in the way of doing his duty till right habits are formed. He must learn habits of study and habits of restraint.



PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, July 18, 1888.

The Department of Industrial Education met in Pioneer Hall, and was called to order at 2:40 P. M. by its President, George T. Fairchild.

President Fairchild announced the necessary absence of Secretary Thompson, and on motion H. H. Belfield, of Chicago, was elected Secretary.

The President then delivered the annual address. The address was discussed by C. M. Woodward, Z. Richards, and John M. Ordway.

In the absence of Secretary Thompson, his report was read by H. M. James, of Nebraska.

The report was discussed by Messrs. Richards, Crawford, Fernald, Letcher, and Ordway.

C. M. Woodward suggested that joint sessions of this and other departments might be held with advantage, since subjects of interest to members of several sections were frequently discussed at the same time but at different places.

T. O. Crawford moved that when the Department adjourns, it adjourn to meet at 3 P. M. on Thursday. Carried.

The President announced the appointment of the following committees:

On Nomination of Officers—M. C. Fernald, of Maine; Wm. O. Pratt, of New York; John D. Letcher, of Oregon.

On Resolutions—John M. Ordway, of Louisiana; C. M. Woodward, of Missouri; T. O. Crawford, of California.

The Department then adjourned till Thursday at 3 P. M.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

The Industrial Department held its second session at Pioneer Hall, being called to order at 3 P. M. by President Fairchild.

Zalmon Richards, of Washington, D. C., read a paper on "The Relation of Industrial to Intellectual and Moral Training in our Public Schools."

This paper was followed by a paper by T. O. Crawford, of Oakland, Cali-

fornia, on "The Educational Power and Utility of Industrial Education and Manual Training in our Grammar Schools."

After the discussion of this paper, the Committee on Nomination of Officers reported as follows:

For President—George T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kansas.

For Vice-President—Henry H. Belfield, Chicago, Illinois.

For Secretary—Andrew J. Rickoff, Brooklyn, New York.

The Department then adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.—JULY 20, 1888.

The third session of the Industrial Department was held Friday afternoon, at 2:30, at Pioneers' Hall.

A paper was read by C. M. Woodward, of St. Louis, on "The Relation of Manual-Training Schools to Schools of Technology."

John M. Ordway, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, reported the following:

Resolved, That as the term "industrial education" fails to impart to all a correct idea of the objects and ends of this Department, we respectfully ask the Directors of the Association to call this, in future programmes, the Department of Manual Training and Industrial Training.

Resolved, That this Department highly appreciates the kind care of the local committee in providing a commodious, comfortable, well-lighted and conveniently situated room for our meetings.

Adopted.

C. M. Woodward offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to suggest a uniform system of nomenclature for the products of manual-training schools.

The Chair appointed Messrs. C. M. Woodward, John M. Ordway, H. H. Belfield, W. T. Raymond, W. F. M. Goss.

On motion, the chairman of the above committee was instructed to add two additional members to the committee, to represent training schools in New York and Philadelphia.

Adjourned *sine die*.

H. H. BELFIELD, *Secretary pro tem*.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

SOME LIMITATIONS IN INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD, MANHATTAN, KANSAS.

Being a known champion of industrial training as a part of education, I trust that no one will regard the title of this paper or its subject-matter in any other light than that of true enthusiasm. I believe most heartily in the idea, and in its success on trial. More than a dozen years since, a paper of mine before this very body committed me as a witness to its usefulness in agricultural colleges; and every year since, with far wider range of observation and more extended responsibility, has added to the certainty of my convictions. I believe the world needs far more of this training in the things of life along with its learning about life.

Yet the very earnestness of this faith in the idea makes me cautious. I am jealous of every unguarded rush of zeal which leaves wide gaps in our line of advancement open to attacks from the enemy. I believe that many grand ideas are retarded in the march of progress by over-zealous adherents, whose vaporings, being noisy in ebullition, are mistaken by earnest thinkers for the idea itself. The conquest is to be won, not by a rush and hurrah, but by the pervading influence of a real growth in our own methods of training. We do not need even to denounce the old methods: they have made our success. We need to carefully secure for each improvement a recognition on its merits, the universal principles of education being the tests, still, of every merit. For human nature has the same basis for all time, though added knowledge of that nature enables us to use it better. That is new truth which includes the old truths; "new, but not true," is the verdict upon that which contradicts the old in order to find itself a place. Sometimes, therefore, in such gatherings as ours, I have felt like pleading, "Save us from over-zealous friends." Indeed, it is with something of such a feeling that I ask you to-day to consider the necessary limitations of manual training as a means of education. The more carefully we draw for ourselves a true statement of the actual conditions, unfavorable as well as favorable, the surer we are to win a proper place in the world's work. Confused ideas are as useless as incomplete ones. Our distinctions must be definite, and our adaptation of parts perfect.

Now, judging from experience in many lines of training as a most interested observer, I find the range of real education in manual arts clearly

limited in two directions. What can be done depends largely upon the individual human nature with which we have to deal; and, almost as largely, upon the peculiar social conditions under which we have that nature to train.

First, industrial training is always limited in its reach by human nature in individuals. Soul and body both are to be wrought upon at every stage of progress, or we miss our object. Working is not thinking, and thinking is not working, though both must be combined in accomplishment. The thinkers may be another set of men from the doers, as President Angell, of Michigan University, used so eloquently to prove. We wish to so combine thinking and doing in the training of youth that the great thinkers can lead in doing, as well, and the doers can follow at least the thoughts of the great thinkers. The solution of a problem is not in the manipulation of the figures, but it is incomplete without this: so the manipulation of figures into the required answer is not the solution at all, unless clear thought has traced the logical necessity of relation in the steps of the process. Manual training as a part of education is like the manipulation of figures, an embodiment of a thought. It must and does find this *general* limitation to the medium ground between thinking and doing. *Accuracy of calculation* with *accuracy of performance* makes the educational feature. That act of mind or hand which involves mere imitation has but little of educational value, however useful. The precision of the Chinaman is an important element of utility, but he can scarcely be said to be educated into it. We must not be so drawn into admiration of the monkey-ingenuity of children and youth in imitation as to believe such training will prove an advance in educational methods. We are in more danger of accepting a neat imitation in wood or clay than we are in figures or letters, because the wood seems to have a utility of its own. We are in danger of overestimating the exact imitation in comparison with the less exact independent work.

For these reasons the gradation of problems to the psychological and physiological development of each pupil is even more necessary than in the more familiar problem of mathematics and the natural science. The youth whose perceptive faculties are untrained must have problems of which he can perceive the parts exactly, or he simply does as the rest do. His comprehension must be kept in constant view while laying out work. If his thought is not clear beforehand, failure will be his best teacher; yet in such work he may succeed admirably to all outward appearance by a quick eye for similarities. I have found this fact to be a partial explanation of the seeming advantage which some dull students gain in such training. We must make our limitation clear to the embodiment of only such thoughts as can be comprehended. The qualities of a perfect square must be more real than those of any approximation to it in handicraft; and yet training may put the concrete first. The best workman we ever trained was constantly tempted to put his tools in place of geometrical principles. He had worked in advance of his comprehension.

Again, for educational purposes, the problems of manual training must conform to a student's powers of generalization. The result of his effort is an illustration of a multitude of applications. The mortise and tenon are not simply two bits of wood fitted to each other, but an embodiment of a thought covering a host of necessities in building. The process of generalization must have reached out toward these many applications, or the work does little in the way of education. With this, the work gives precision to his thought. So much for the first point of strict limitation to the development of psychological faculties. It will bear indefinite study in the practical devising of systems of instruction.

The second limitation grows directly out of the first. Individual peculiarities of thought weigh more in such training than where the result is less thought of; and yet we are likely to consider them less. The effect is that instruction, to be real, must be more directly individual. The teacher in such work is compelled to push himself into the individual thoughts of his pupils, and the number of a class is limited by his power. I find that the best teacher must provide for a division of attention in spite of the most careful classification. While the discipline of a well-arranged shop may be perfect with forty benches, the hold of the instructor upon his pupils reaches no further than his interest in their individual thinking inspires them. A mere mechanic teaches but little, though he may make a grand show of finished work. On the other hand, the mere idealist may hold so near his pupils the abstractions on which their generalization is based that a large number gain no distinct training in the concrete illustration. We are limited to the moderate number, varying with ability and experience of the teacher, which can be influenced directly through insight into each peculiarity of thought. Classification ought to be well defined.

Third, in order to train as well as teach, the various steps of progress must be often repeated. The nervous and muscular system through which all skill is exhibited gain exactness, precision, only by repetition. At the same time, mere repetition is not education. Hence, in manual training as we think of it, there must be a limitation to such details as can be repeated in variety almost indefinitely, so that new problems stimulate thought while similar motions approach perfection in result. The limit is the same as everyone has found in teaching writing or drawing. Much ingenuity must be exercised to extend the range of definite problems, progressive in their succession, and still affording indefinite training by repetition. I am glad to see the friends of shop-training stimulated to comparison of plans and devices.

Out of the third limitation there grows a danger from which I take a fourth. The few details mastered by repetition enough to give skill, are most readily found in some particular line of work, as cabinet-making, or mechanical engineering. The result is then a technical, not a general, education—an unnatural bias in childhood that may hinder *real* education.

The limitation is to such classes of problems as suggest a multitude of applications in all sorts of trades. This complicates the difficulties of indefinitely extending, off-hand, the advantages of such training. It is easy to find illustrations of the tendency toward the narrowing spirit of a trade where the shops are managed by most competent mechanics, and the better the work done the stronger the tendency. Where classes are required to pursue such courses, those who fancy the trade follow it, while the rest get little training and less instruction.

The fifth limitation and the last of those growing out of student-nature which I will dwell upon, is from the ease with which such exercises dwindle into play. It has been observed that kindergarten practice sometimes turns out to be only a high type of amusement, rendering a child dependent upon amusement for incentive to diligence. I have seen shop-work of various kinds degenerate in a similar way. The Yankee boy whittles as he whistles, not so much for results in tune or toy as "to keep his courage up"—to drive away *ennui*. It is easy to work upon this desire for play in the shop, to devise trinkets, and puzzles—to turn handles and spindles—to turn sticks into shavings even with the semblance of diligence, and with little progress in either skill or intelligence. Industrial training, as a part of education, must show how each detail is related to correct thinking. Either the result, or the process, or both, must be connected with the world's wants by some evident relation. The perfection of a joint in wood-work has a meaning, and that meaning ought to be illustrated in the work by either success or failure. The outline of a chair-spindle has its unity, and that should be tested in the work. In this way the successful trainer finds his limitations, just as every good teacher does, in the necessary adaptation of means to ends for each student brought under his tutelage; and the danger of missing the mark in such a work, where the lines are new and untested, is far greater than in the more familiar kinds of instruction.

Another series of limitations is dependent upon the surroundings of the undertaking. All things are *relatively* good, or bad. This training is no exception.

First, I mention the general tone of sentiment in the community. Both trainer and student find the prevailing opinion either a stimulant or a sedative to enthusiasm. What the trainer can do with his pupils depends largely upon the expectations of all interested, and his efforts as well as his accomplishment are limited by these expectations. If the patrons of a school are afraid their children will be turned out mechanics by a course of manual training, the best teacher and trainer must first convert the sentiment before his training will do its best work. If the community see dollars in every blow of the hammer, and every stroke of the chisel, education will flag; for when the whirr of machinery sings to a neighborhood—like the canter of his horse to Tennyson's Northern Farmer—only "propotty, propotty, propotty," there is little range to be given to mechanical training beyond what will put

a boy at the machine in the shortest time. False ideas of gentility sometimes crowd one to his wit's-end for devices that shall train against the shame of drudgery.

Second, The peculiar mechanical drift of particular localities suggests lines of least resistance in manual training. The ingenuity of the teacher is strained to overcome a tendency against the best interests of his students; for education needs to broaden the range of abilities. At the same time, to ignore this evident advantage in ready accomplishment is to lack good sense. So we have to acknowledge this limitation to what we can do most in.

Third, popular opinion of what is useful varies in different places and times. We find that the actual influence of training upon young people depends in no slight degree upon their ideals of utility. Just as they object to certain studies as without utility, so they decry certain forms of training as impractical. This objection has with them all the more force from the acknowledged relation of such training to practical life. It is most difficult to persuade a youth whose ideal life is in the printing-office that his actual accomplishment in life will be increased by a year's training in wood and iron work. You and I may have no doubt of it, may even enforce the authority of our opinion upon him; and still his own opposing opinion brings an inertia which almost proves our judgment false in his particular case. Only the establishment of faith by a long series of experiences can remove such inertia, and even then the limitation remains, that you can do no more for a youth than his ideals of utility permit.

Fourth, as we all know, successful instruction involves the personal force of the instructor. In my experience such force is more noticeable in manual training than in other teaching. Any peculiarities of habit, manner, form, influence more in such effort, where the *method* is of first importance. The shop-instructor is far more a handler of his pupils than any class-room teacher can be. This fact, while it adds importance to this kind of instruction, at the same time places limitations upon its extension. The choice of such trainers is more important for the unconscious tuition overshadowing all the rest. Thus the personal equation, after methods have been fully settled, will always remain large, and make the system a delicate one to handle. Especial limitations are to be felt in this direction by those to whose responsibility the pioneer work belongs.

Fifth, there is an almost endless variety of circumstances in the outdoor or home life of the pupils, any or all of which may have a bearing upon their progress. This is true in all forms of education, but is more felt in this training because the outside *doing* is more likely to fall into line with school *doing* than with thinking. This brings, not a new but a larger element of uncertainty into the teacher's plans, and calls for greater tact and judgment. Some boys are so related to work at home that more than twice the practical insight that others have is gained from their daily lesson through double application. This makes more difficult the classification,

and brings new problems into the methods. This limits the immediate application of such training to towns where the measure of such outdoor training can be most easily taken, or to central schools where most of the pupils depend wholly upon their class-work for training.

Sixth, the work in this line must be satisfactorily equipped with tools and fit places for work. The *plant* is of considerable importance—far more than in ordinary teaching of intellectual truths. “Dr. Hopkins on the end of a log” might expound a perfect philosophy; but it takes more than the ingenuity of an Edison even, to train for the arts without some of the tools of the arts. So there are places where the needed equipment for any training worthy the name cannot be had. Luckily the log academy and the “dug-out” college exist where the ordinary struggle for life is a manual training fitted to the necessities of pioneer youth, and we need not worry over the fact that all cannot share equal facilities. Yet it must be granted that the costly fittings for a thorough training school are necessarily limited to communities where wealth can be depended upon to bear its proper burdens for popular education. With the almost perfect communication over the world, a greater uniformity is certain in the means and modes of living. Expenditures for schools and school furniture more than keep pace with the rest of life’s necessities in our pioneer states; yet who can believe that Western towns ought to do with industrial training all that older cities must. In other things the youth cannot wait; in this they may.

Again, there is still unconquered prejudice to be met all over the land. It lingers in the minds of some of our most thoughtful educators. The best students of educational methods have not all yielded assent to the claims of this new contestant for our faith. The aristocracy of learning has held aloof some who might otherwise have taken kindly to the new-comer. For, dispute the fact as we may, a large part of our most respected friends—educated, refined, wealthy, influential, the very cream of society—look upon manual training in every form as a catering to lower wants; a bread-and-butter policy, suited to the wants of the drudging masses, but in no way elevating to the whole people. These are people whose sympathies go out toward the weak and unfortunate, and a charity school of instruction in arts, or trades, or domestic acquirements, will gain their hearty indorsement. But they cannot grasp the notion that men and women need development in doing as well as in being—in fact, for the sake of being. To them, the very sight of such facilities for training as a well-equipped industrial school furnishes, suggests only “hewers of wood and drawers of water,”—hirelings, journeymen, and kitchen-maids. Within this month, I have found this suggestion crowding uppermost in an ardent admirer—from a distance—of my own college. Now, it is no disgrace to such institutions to be ranked as philanthropic advances for the multitude. I am glad when all will concede that such training lifts above the danger of poverty; it is a proof of its utility to humanity, and of its adaptation to the needs of the race. But

this feeling is a limitation upon the spread of useful means and methods. We have no right to expect *our proofs* to be readily accepted against the odds of all this conservatism of thought and sentiment. We need to feel, ourselves, this limitation in all its reality, and meet the difficulty with the calm planning, and explanation, and devising, by which all progress in scientific learning has been made.

Finally, experiments are necessarily costly in this good work. We need to make them with all the careful insight of a Faraday or a Henry in science. The actual results, not our wishes, are to decide upon the permanence of our hold upon the progressing world. If we do true work—hold to the line of absolute truth—our success is not uncertain. The world is ready to accept our methods as they are proved worthy. But too hasty generalizations, and too exuberant expectations, will bring waste—waste of money in unsuccessful undertakings; of enthusiasm, in disappointed hopes; of faith, in dissatisfied friends; of opportunity, in multiplied “I told you so’s.” The more clearly we point out to ourselves the weak points in our aims and methods, the more accurately we estimate the limitations of our undertaking, the surer our progress is. It would take but a few failures, comparatively, to bring us backward many years in the struggle for a fair recognition, and false hopes must fail.

In conclusion, let us accept the fact that all our new improvements must be built upon the old establishment. We are not going to make the race over, to use our improved methods upon. All that past centuries have gained we need still, as the foundation of our new civilization. We came out of barbarism by means of barbarism. So our best educational methods have grown out of the crude ones by means of the crude beginning. We can move to higher points only by standing upon those already reached. Let us, then, welcome our conservative friends as the means of severely testing our supposed improvements. We cannot afford to do without them. We cannot afford to build our establishment like the cheap tenement-house, to have it crush us all in a heap when story after story is filled. We can know *on* what we build, *to* what we build from day to day, and so reach the heaven of our hopes; but every inch of progress must be tested by the established principles of education.

DISCUSSION.*

C. M. WOODWARD, of St. Louis, expressed his entire agreement with the views of the address. He thought there was danger to the cause in introducing manual training to young children. The result of this would be simply a parrot-like work, without thought by the pupil. The number in a class might be twenty-four, provided the class was taught as a class; it is

* Reported by the Secretary.

easier to teach a class of twenty-four, as a class, than six boys at different stages. There should be a system of nomenclature adopted, that there may be uniformity of system. He recommended the appointment of a committee on nomenclature. He further maintained that the bias toward trades can be best avoided by the employment of educated men who have studied mechanics, rather than mere mechanics.

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, asked whether there was not a common ground over which *all* children should be taken; some general principles which should be taught to *all* children, in order to prepare them for any and all trades.

MR. WOODWARD replied that manual training begins in the kindergarten, and should be continued through all the primary and grammar grades; this work should be of such a kind as to lead to no particular trade, but be wholly general in its character, and lead pupils to love manual work, which they will do unless it is drudgery.

MR. RICHARDS thought that all training should be directed to the training of citizens, rather than to the preparation of any particular profession, and should tend to break down the differences which now exist among our people.

JOHN M. ORDWAY, of New Orleans, said that damage to manual training has been done by over-zealous advocates, who have maintained that manual training is a panacea for all the evils in education. The mistake has been made of advocating the establishment by the State of trade schools, which should be maintained by private means. The erroneous idea that manual training is designed to teach boys to earn money existed in Europe as well as in the United States, but has been abandoned there. The argument against manual training—that it is not education—was used for years against drawing; but there are more arguments in favor of manual training as a means of education than there are in favor of drawing. He agreed with Mr. Woodward, that a mechanic, as teacher, was inclined to take the view of the “boss mechanic” rather than the view of the teacher.

A BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE PROGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION DURING THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1888.

R. S. THOMPSON, PENNSYLVANIA.

This report is necessarily imperfect. The subject of which it treats has grown so rapidly during the last few years that it is difficult to keep informed in regard to it.

The facts here submitted, your Secretary has obtained from a variety of sources. State and city school reports, industrial school catalogues, educa-

tional magazines, articles and items in the newspapers, have all been laid under contribution; and the items thus gleaned have been supplemented by private letters from friends interested in the subject.

It must not be thought that this is a complete exponent of the progress of industrial education during the year. Doubtless there have been many interesting enterprises launched during the year, that I have not heard of.

It will be convenient to present the subject under three topics, viz.: 1. Extensions of industrial education, and increased facilities for pursuing it. 2. The growth of public sentiment in reference to the subject. 3. The outlook.

I.—EXTENSIONS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Manual training in the public schools of Washington, D. C., was begun with the year under an appropriation made by Congress. The plan was to furnish manual instruction to the pupils of the two higher grades of the grammar schools. Eight schools were fitted up, viz., two of cookery, four of carpentry, one of turning, moulding and forging, and one of sewing. Eight teachers were employed. The whole number of pupils who received instruction in some of the schools was 1,843. This experiment is an attempt to ingraft upon the common schools a system of manual training that will give to all the boys a practical knowledge of the use of the most common tools used in working wood and iron, and to all the girls a similar knowledge of plain cooking and sewing.

The manual-training department of the University of Denver is now in its third year. Last fall a large building was put up for the exclusive use of the school. The funds for the erection and equipment of this school were donated by Mr. Jacob Haish, manufacturer of barbed wire at De Kalb, Ill., he generously donating one-half of all his receipts from the sale of wire in Colorado, Wyoming, New Mexico, and Utah for the endowment of this school, until the sum should amount to \$50,000. During the past year a machine shop was added to the other departments, and instruction given in the use of machine tools.

In connection with the public schools of Tidioute, Pa., there has been for some years a growing department of manual training, and this during the past year has been made much more extensive and complete. Drawing, floriculture, sewing, carpentry, wood-turning, have been added, and arrangements have been made to introduce forging and other branches of iron-work next year. The principal of the school reports that but one man in the town asked to have his boy excused from the work of this department. It is proper to state that the industrial work of the school is supported by one man, J. S. Granden.

Omaha, Nebraska: Manual training was introduced into the public schools in this city in 1886 to a limited extent. During the past year the scope of the work has been somewhat extended. Instruction is now given to pupils in the high school who choose to receive it, in carpentry, joining and wood-

turning, carving, and moulding. Arrangements are in progress to furnish instructors in metal-work during the coming year. The committee of the board which has the subject in charge say in their report that the opposition which the project met at first from some members of the board and some of the daily papers, has generally given way, and the work meets with general favor. It is proposed to add to the present industrial departments, one on domestic economy.

The Kansas State Agricultural College reports enlargement of shop machinery by nearly fifteen hundred dollars' worth, and a remodeling of the course of training in wood-work to greater effectiveness. President Fairchild will show the plan at the meeting of the section. The rolls show 232 in shop-work, 133 in sewing, 98 in printing, 66 on the farm and gardens, and 18 in cooking and dairying. The total enrollment has been 472.

The St. Louis manual training school, through Director Woodward, is reported as better equipped than ever before. New tools and facilities to the value of \$1,500 have been added. This school receives about 100 new students each year, and is full to its capacity. A new feature is that of "carving plaster, and even turning it to some extent."

Dakota Agricultural College, Brookings, Dakota: This institution, though it has been running since 1884, within the last year has undertaken the real work of industrial training. It has four hundred acres of land which is cultivated in the line of close farming, and of horticulture. A large part of the work is done by students of the institution. The work which they do on the gardens and on the farm is of two kinds, viz., educational and "pay" work. For such work as students are able to do they are paid by the hour; for work which they are learning to do, they receive no pay. The school has a thoroughly equipped machine shop, a blacksmith shop, and a carpenter shop. All male students during their course must take at least three terms of exercise in these shops, two hours per day, five days per week. In addition to these industrial occupations and pursuits it offers its students facilities for getting a knowledge of and skill in analytical chemistry, in instrumental music, in short-hand and type-writing, and in telegraphy, and the young ladies are all required to take one term of practical instruction in cooking, and one also in sewing and fitting. Although this industrial feature of the institution has been in operation only a few months, still classes have been taught in nearly or quite all the above-named industrial pursuits.

The Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., established by Mr. Chas. Pratt, was opened to the public in October, '87. Its main building, six stories high, is devoted to a library and reading-room, free to residents of the city; a drawing department for mechanical and free-hand drawing, designing, modeling, and wood-carving; a department for women, where are taught cooking, sewing, dress-making, millinery, etc.; and a technical museum. The department of mechanic arts occupies buildings covering a ground-space about two hundred by one hundred feet, and containing forge-room, foundry, wood-

working and metal-working rooms, trade-school, laboratories, etc. Day and evening classes have already been established, and accommodations have been provided for several thousand students.

Another important advance is the introduction of industrial training into the New York city system of schools.

In Boston a normal class for the purpose of teaching the use of wood-working tools has been formed in the North Bennett Street Mission School, and the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls gives instruction in cooking and house-work.

A cooking school has been established in connection with the public schools of Pittsburgh.

Peru, Illinois, for some years has had a system of industrial training in connection with the public-school system, and during the year has added wood-carving to the work heretofore done.

A cooking school has been established in connection with the public schools of New Haven.

Manual training has been introduced into the public schools of Humboldt, Iowa.

An encouraging feature of the agricultural department of the University of Wisconsin was that last year a class of twenty-five attended the shorter course in agriculture during the winter. These also took lessons in the use of tools two hours daily. These boys came directly from the farm, and returned to it again.

II.—PUBLIC SENTIMENT IN REFERENCE TO INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Philadelphia reports public sentiment strongly in favor, and steadily increasing. Baltimore gives the same report, and as an evidence of this the fact is mentioned that in this city during the year there has been organized "a society for the promotion of industrial training."

In reference to the manual-training school of St. Louis, it is reported that its standing in public sentiment is stronger than ever, and nowhere so strong as with the parents of those boys who have taken a full course.

Of Omaha, Nebraska, it is said that public sentiment is gradually coming to favor the work there, as appears from the report of the committee on manual training, in the catalogue. And throughout Nebraska it is gaining ground very rapidly. The objectors are those who have not seen the school in operation, and in reality do not know the aims, objects and nature of manual training. A great many people have visited the school, and leave favorably impressed with the work.

The work of the New York Industrial Association (University Place, New York city) has been productive of good results. A college or manual-training school for teachers has been established under its auspices. The board of managers of this association believe that manual training should be taught in the public schools, and that teachers should know how to teach it.

Superintendent R. L. Barton, Peru, Ill., reports that "Manual training is carried on here in connection with our public school, and has been for five years. It gives satisfaction to parents and patrons, and is very popular with pupils. More than this, it is furnishing hand and eye training, and producing 'mind-growth.'"

In reference to the objections sometimes made, that the introduction of manual training will interfere with intellectual work, the principal of the high school of Washington, D. C., says: "It is certain it did not hinder the general progress of any boy engaged in it, and it is equally certain that the influence of the work was beneficial in various ways to the school."

This testimony seems to be confirmed by all who mention the subject. As to the other inquiry sometimes made in regard to the business followed by the graduates, the following summary will be of interest:

The Baltimore manual-training school gained from sixty-two pupils in 1884 to three hundred and twenty-eight in 1888. Of the twenty-five first graduates in 1887, one is a teacher, four engineers, one a carpenter, two pattern-makers, one draughtsman, one farmer, one car-builder, one in a store, one an architect, six machinists, one student, two mercantile pursuits. Of fifty-five students withdrawn from the school during the year 1887, all but six are in mechanical pursuits.

III.—THE OUTLOOK.

In Detroit the introduction of industrial training has been recommended by competent authority.

In New Jersey the state superintendent has been instructed to examine the *modus operandi* in other states, and to report on the advisability of introducing the study into the state system, and to prepare a suitable plan.

The best educational bill now before Congress provides for the establishment of an industrial boarding-school on every reservation where the Indian adults number five hundred or more. Children between eight and eighteen are to be kept in these schools five years.

In Philadelphia measures are being taken to introduce industrial education into the grammar and primary grades, so far as appliances and surroundings will permit.

In December, 1887, a special committee of the schools of Albany, N. Y., of which the superintendent was a member, reported strongly advising the introduction of manual training for these, among other, reasons:

1st. This training will give pupils a wider field of occupation to choose from.

2d. It will give them a sounder judgment of men and things.

3d. It will afford a better intellectual development.

4th. Its introduction will tend to the elevation of labor.

5th. That under modern industrial circumstances its introduction is a necessity.

Through aid derived from the income of the John F. Slater fund, large opportunity for industrial training is furnished to the colored people of the South. The policy of the managers of this fund has been to encourage industrial training in connection with literary instruction by judicious yearly grants of money, in some cases to support teachers of some kind of industry, or to assist in the purchase of material or tools. Last year something over forty-six thousand dollars were appropriated in this way. About forty-five schools, aggregating over ten thousand students, receive more or less help, and a large portion of the students were afforded some kind of industrial training. In these schools a great variety of occupations are taught, and the net result to the colored people and to the South must be large and valuable.

As to the need for such training, I cannot better express it than in the weighty words of President De Forest, of Talledega College: "It is conceded that slavery disgraced and disabled labor, and that freedom was generally regarded as meaning exemption from work and restraint. Upon his emancipation the negro did not at once perceive that self-control involves self-support, and that self-support involves work and economy. The danger of a little learning, never greater than when the people are emerging from ignorance, may be avoided by rigorous manual and moral training. Any education of the freedman which neglects his physical nature is utterly inadequate. The poverty, waste and wretchedness so prevalent in a region where all the necessities of life are so easily secured, make a cogent reason for industrial training; while another and hardly less weighty one is found in the incidental efforts of such education in reinforcing the will, in developing perseverance, and even in cultivating the conscience, by making plainly apparent the results of good and bad workmanship."

In regard to the results of this work, strong testimony is borne by all who are in a situation to observe them. The following statement by Principal Becker, of Benedict Institute, is a fair sample of many which might be quoted: "The introduction of industrial work has changed the whole fiber of our other work. The only way one can know it is to be with those who are in it, and to be with them day in and day out, as we are here. I can speak of the moralities, the citizenship, and the foundation for literary culture in it. One of the finest men in the printing-room has as utterly failed in his class-work as you can imagine. He was a good and intelligent student, but the least thing would discourage him. Last year he reluctantly took up the industrial work. You may now ask any teacher about him, and he will tell you of his improved work as a student and his growing invincibility of character. A student who has no interest in the industrial department is certain to be of no account in other lines."

Miss Packard, Principal of Spellman Female Seminary, says: "Instead of losing in the intellectual work, there is a decided gain in thoroughness because of the industrial work. The training of the eye and hand not only

increases the pupils' power of observation and gives precision to their work, but prepares them for homes of their own."

A striking indication of the increasing interest felt in the subject of industrial education, is the amount of attention given to the subject in the proceedings of teachers' associations.

An unusual amount of time was given to its discussion at the winter meeting of the Department of Superintendence, and at nearly all of the state meetings during the year interesting papers, or discussions of the subject, were listened to.

At the meeting of the Pennsylvania State Association, two weeks ago, a "Symposium on Manual Training" was a prominent feature.

In accordance with a resolution passed at the last legislative session, the Governor of Pennsylvania has appointed a committee of five persons "to make inquiry and report to the legislature at its next session concerning the extent to which industrial education is carried on in Pennsylvania and elsewhere; the best means of introducing and maintaining it in the several grades; and how far it is possible, or desirable, to introduce it into the existing systems of public schools."

The following valuable books have been published on the subject during the year:

"Industrial Education"; by Robt. Seidel, Mollis, Switzerland. Translated by Margaret K. Smith, Oswego, N. Y. Cloth, 170 pages. Price, 80 cents.

"The Manual-Training School; its aims, methods, and results, with detailed courses of instruction in Shop-work and Drawing." By Prof. C. M. Woodward, of the Manual-Training School, Washington University, St. Louis. Cloth, 374 pages. Price, \$2. (D. C. Heath & Co., publishers.)

As a general summary of the present belief of the active promoters of industrial education, I cannot do better than copy the words of Professor Woodward, as he has written them in the last catalogue of the Manual-Training School of St. Louis, of which he is principal:

"In submitting the above report of the condition, methods, aims, and results of the school during its seven and a half years, the director is gratified by the thought that in spite of its many shortcomings, *the school has served to demonstrate the entire feasibility of incorporating the elements of intellectual and manual training in such a way that each is the gainer thereby, and that he has correctly read the public demand for an education which shall insure the most valuable mental discipline at the same time that it gives knowledge and skill of great intrinsic worth.*"

*DISCUSSION.**

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, thought that part of the report which described the progress of manual training in Washington must have included the schools for white children only, and was therefore incomplete. The two exhibits given in Washington city, one by the pupils of the white schools, the other by those of the colored schools, were worthy of high commendation.

T. O. CRAWFORD, of California, stated that hand-work was commenced in the Oakland schools four years ago, and has been continued to the present time. The object of this work was to develop the power of thinking as well as of working. Twenty benches and twenty sets of tools were supplied. The boys came at 8 A. M., sometimes without breakfast, that they might not be tardy. The study of the red-wood used preceded its use as material. Work in iron followed wood, also with great success. The faculties of perception and comparison were developed, together with a high estimate of honest hand-work. The effect of the hand-work on discipline was good.

M. C. FERNALD, of Maine, observed no mention made of the work done in the Maine State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. In this college exist shops for wood and iron work, for the training of mechanical engineering, each containing facilities for the work of eight students at one time. All the manual work is regarded as a part of the educational training of the students.

J. D. LETCHER, of Oregon, reported greatly increased facilities for industrial training in the State Agricultural College of Oregon.

J. M. ORDWAY stated that cooking had been introduced into the schools of Boston, the room being furnished by the city.

THE RELATION OF INDUSTRIAL TO INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL TRAINING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

ZALMON RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The great work of the present life is education, or preparation for another and a higher life. We have a material and an immaterial being—a mind and a body. In this life, the body is the home and training-place for the soul. The human being is the workmanship of the Divine. Our Maker has, for wise purposes, ordained that the intellectual or spiritual being shall be developed and trained while it dwells in its physical, or clayey tenement.

*Reported by the Secretary.

Though the physical being is mortal, it seems to be the purpose of our Maker that it should be so trained and cared for that it shall be a constant aid in the development and training of the spiritual being for its high destiny. This spiritual being, and not the physical, is the real, the immortal part of our existence, which, in our education, should never be lost sight of.

The great work of this mortal life, then, consists in training and educating the spiritual—the intellectual—being, as a preparation for future immortality. This preparation consists in learning and practicing what is true and right; and also in learning and avoiding what is false and wrong.

This preparatory training was, by our Creator, evidently, committed to the parent, who alone is primarily responsible, to the extent of his ability, for the early training of the child. He must do this work himself, or intrust it to the best agency within his reach. If he is unable to provide the proper means himself, he must rely upon society, or upon the state. It is the duty of the state to provide such means for training for all its citizens as will best fit them for discharging the duties of citizenship.

The necessity for public-school education grows out of the necessity for a free civil government. Government we must have, for defining and protecting civil rights; and it has an inherent right to determine what shall be the character and the rights of its citizens. Consequently, it has the right, and also the obligation, to provide appropriate means and facilities for the formation of such a character, for every citizen, as the nature of the government requires.

We assume, therefore, that the proper kind of education for all our citizens is, such as will best fit the whole child—his physical, intellectual and moral being—for the real obligations and duties of a citizen.

We have no right to assume, however, that the intellectual being only is to be fully trained, without an equal regard for the moral and the physical. The character of our people affects the weal or woe of the state just in proportion as their moral and physical training is combined with or divorced from their intellectual training. Purely intellectual training does not fit children for life's real work.

Unfortunately for the cause of public education, there has been a tendency in many parts of our country, if not everywhere, for many years, to *individualize*, so to speak, the three so-called essential elements of human training. Our fathers, who were the authors of common-school education, believed in and acted upon the principle that the moral or religious education of their children was first in importance, and their intellectual second, while the physical and the industrial training belonged to the home and the shop.

But, by slow degrees, the religious and moral element of their system, so wisely devised at first, because they were loyal to both church and state, has been disappearing from our public schools to such an extent that by many *very little* importance seems to be attached to the moral and religious char-

acter of our teachers, or of the instruction given in our schools. If we should compare the common schools of our nominally Christian country with those of heathendom—China or India, for instance—we should find very little difference in the character and amount of moral instruction imparted; while the religious instruction, such as it is in the latter countries, is more marked and earnest than it is in our own country. Such a state of things reflects no honor on us, and bodes no good to our boasted Christian country—and it should exist no longer. In the name of all that is good we must protest against this growing neglect and almost total disregard of religious or moral instruction and qualifications on the part of our teachers. In some of our cities everything moral and religious—the Bible, prayer, and lessons in morals and manners—is stricken from the curriculum of school training. Is it any wonder that the seeds of anarchy, socialism, communism, infidelity, insubordination, and licentiousness so easily find a lodgment in the hearts of our youth thus neglected? It is a notorious fact that multitudes of them are receiving just the training which fits them to become companions for socialists and anarchists, who leave their foreign homes for their country's good, to become disturbers, pests, and murderers in this "land of the free and home of the brave"

In every curriculum for a system of free, public instruction, there are four conditions of child-nature which must be specially provided for:

1st. The intellectual condition, which is now generally best cared for, but is yet sadly deficient in many respects. Great improvements in methods of intellectual training have been and are constantly being made; but there is room and demand for still greater improvements. The first five years of school life are too valuable to justify the waste of time and energy which the prevailing absurd methods seem to make so necessary. When the principles of psychology are more practically understood, we may look for more marked improvements in intellectual training.

2d. The moral condition of child-nature should receive the highest consideration and attention. No system of education which ignores the religious nature of the child is worthy of recognition for a moment.

3d. The social condition of child-nature, including his fondness for companionship, for plays, innocent games and sports of an educational character, should be carefully provided for, especially in the lower grades of schools. The motto is a true one, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." All proper plays and games can be so systematized and conducted as to secure sound, healthful discipline at the same time that the child's natural spirits are free, yet properly restrained. True discipline consists in developing and training the social as well as the intellectual and moral nature.

4th. The next condition of child-nature to be provided for is that which relates to the child's physical development; it includes industrial and manual training.

The question seems to be settled that some kind of industrial training

has come into our schools to stay. The great question yet to be settled is, "What shall this industrial training be?" or, "When and how shall it be given?" It is a reform called for by the times and by the people. When the masses of our intelligent citizens demand a reform, it will surely come, and move onward like the mighty glacier in a mountain gorge; slowly, it may be, but surely and irresistibly, rooting up gnarly oaks, and lifting mighty boulders from their rocky beds and bearing them onward to their destination. Witty criticisms and faithless conservatism must give way to truth and to intelligent public opinion. Already the triumph of this reform has been signalled from various parts of our own country and from Europe. We may safely predict that, before this century shall expire, we shall see its essential principles engrafted upon all our most successful school systems.

Thus far this new feature of school training has been to a great extent tentative and experimental. The various methods adopted are lacking in uniformity; yet sufficient success in many places has been realized to guarantee future and desirable success, wherever the work is properly conducted, by properly qualified leaders.

In some instances it seems to have secured improved results in mental training in our own country and in Europe. It has proved to be even an aid in ordinary school training, by furnishing the best kind of objective illustrations, and by forming correct habits of thought.

But again, the experiments for combining an industrial with the common course of intellectual training have been confined for the most part to the highest grades of schools, so that the masses of our youth, between the ages of six and twelve, large portions of whom are obliged to leave school before they can reach the higher grades, are necessarily deprived of all the advantages of this training. Yet it is this class especially to whom these advantages are most valuable—to this larger class more than to those in the higher grades who ought to enjoy the very best advantages of our public schools.

Having made this subject a special study for the last fifteen years, I have tried to find out the best method of combining industrial and intellectual training in the lower as well as higher grades of schools, and I have arrived at the following conclusions:

First. All children should be made as familiar as possible with the language and the common terms used in the common employments of life.

Second. They should be trained experimentally, and practically to a certain extent, in the elementary principles of these common employments, in order to secure for them a correct understanding of their nature and demands, and also a proper regard and a mental sympathy for the representatives of capital and labor—or for the so-called professions and common employments—so that every necessary employment shall be considered equally honorable and respectable.

Third. The manual part of this training should be of the simplest kind in our elementary schools, and should be given with the simplest tools and machinery, and with as little expense as possible. Some of the most formidable objections to its introduction arise from the heavy and needless expense and cumbersome machinery which have hitherto been considered necessary. It can easily be demonstrated that the most important educational features of industrial and manual training can be secured with simple and inexpensive machinery and tools.

Fourth. This training should be wisely adapted to all pupils alike, and brought within their reach; especially of the largest number, belonging to the middle and poorer classes, who most need it.

Fifth. While all needed industrial training is to be secured, it should not be allowed to interfere with such intellectual training as every child should receive, but it should rather serve to make that training more effectual and complete. For no education is complete which does not primarily develop and train the mind and the heart.

Finally. No system or curriculum of school training is such as the genius and nature of our civil institutions require, which does not make it obligatory upon all our teachers to be well trained in and have a hearty and positive sympathy for the moral and religious sentiments, which should control every teacher and pupil. And further, the teachers should know how and when to inculcate these sentiments in every grade of schools.

I am now prepared to speak of what I consider to be the essential and most appropriate means and instrumentalities for carrying into effect this new combination-method of school training. The plan I would propose, now, is essentially the same as that I ventured to describe in the *National Teacher*, in 1872, the essential features of which, I am pleased to learn, have lately been introduced into the schools of New York city. These features have been partially introduced, also, into very many other schools of our country, notwithstanding the fact that the editor of the journal above referred to pronounced, at that time, the proposed reform "*too radical for the present century.*"

I am not disposed to criticize any of the different methods which have been tried, with different degrees of success, in various places, but to present the leading outlines of the plan which seems to me to promise the greatest usefulness.

In the first place, I would have the specialties of this training carried on in a room specially fitted for the work proposed, contiguous or easily accessible to one or more intellectual-rooms, so that the physical and intellectual exercises can be conducted alternately, under the direction of teachers specially qualified for their specific work. Of course, such an arrangement would require a modification of the common plan for school-rooms. This can easily be made, without any material increase of expense. If industrial training is to be successfully combined with intellectual, the school-rooms must be modified accordingly.

Two-and-a-half, or at most three hours, daily, of the right kind of intellectual training, is all that is necessary to secure the most rapid and satisfactory improvement of children ten years of age and under; but the remainder of the school-day can be and ought to be utilized in giving systematic and appropriate physical and industrial training to every child alike.

I think the common experience of all careful and philosophical observers of mental and physical development in the formative period of human life confirms the statement, that two short, well-directed, regular and earnestly enforced daily lessons, given when the whole attention of the pupil is aroused and fixed, as it ought always to be, are more effectual and permanently useful than several long, protracted, monotonous exercises in an unventilated school-room.

This is no fanciful statement of mine, nor a mere sentiment, for I have proved, in my own work, by actual experiment with several classes of children during the last ten years, that more rapid and better development can be secured in the acquisition of oral and sight-language, and in a knowledge of necessary first principles, in two-and-a-half hours of direct, daily, personal instruction, than by the usual five or six hours of daily sessions.

But the remaining portion of the school-day and the surplus energies of children must be employed and utilized in the industrial-training department of the school, which should always be easily accessible, under the direction of a specially trained teacher, and supplied with the necessary tools and apparatus.

The physical being of the child should be trained *pari passu* with the moral and the intellectual. We would emphasize the word *trained*, for the soul—or the mind—and the body *must be trained* by skilled and experienced teachers, and not left to accident or spontaneous development. As the healthy growing plant requires a constant and proper supply of air, heat, moisture and care, so both mind and body require good parental influence, consecrated love, true, sound instruction, and watchful care.

While evidently it would generally be better to have a specifically prepared room for industrial work, yet as the child under ten or twelve years should be mainly confined to the acquisition of the most elementary principles, to the meaning and use of the language and common terms used in the common employments of life, one and the same room and the same teacher, if properly qualified for each grade, may be employed for the first four or five years.

The room should be of such a size as to permit a proper number of pupils to be seated in strong and movable arm-chairs, adapted to the size and age of the pupils, provided with easily and safely adjusted tables, which can be readily removed when necessary. To each chair should be adjusted a permanently attached pocket of metal or wood, for the temporary storage of books, slate, pencils, etc., for immediate use. This arrangement will permit

of clearing the floor readily for light gymnastics or organized plays, marching, etc., and for industrial work if necessary. The chair-tables will be required for writing, drawing, paper-folding, moulding, stick-laying, etc., etc.

All the available wall-space should be provided with cases, drawers, and shelves, protected from dust and unbidden hands by sliding or neatly hung doors, for the purpose of storing and having ready at hand such apparatus, tools and materials as may be required in the various illustrations and manipulations, and for keeping the necessary text-books for language and other elementary training, and such objects as may be needed in objective teaching. The number and variety of these appliances will depend very much upon the ingenuity, skill and qualifications of the teacher, and upon the liberality of the school authorities.

There should be a good-sized platform, large enough for a teacher's table, a piano, a few spare chairs, and a large portable blackboard. There should be a wall blackboard on the rear of the platform, with provision for chalk and erasers.

As music is one of the essentials of good school training, the piano should be used, in connection with musical exercises, on all proper occasions.

As soon as the elementary course of industrial training is finished, (for this training should be carefully graded upon natural and progressive principles,) and it becomes necessary to use such heavy apparatus, tools, and machinery as cannot be well introduced into the school-room above described, it will be necessary to provide a special industrial room, in which the most appropriate, but simple, tools and machinery may be used regularly, but alternately with the necessary intellectual exercises. But it must be continually borne in mind that both industrial and intellectual training in our public schools should be regarded and used as means of such an education as will be preparatory to some future employment or profession, and not for the specific purpose of teaching trades or for the acquisition of book-knowledge. All preliminary school training should be so conducted as to furnish such a preparation as is needed by all alike who expect to follow any trade or profession.

When this preparatory training is completed, after leaving the high school or college, then our pupils should enter the trade and professional school, where they can enjoy enlarged opportunities to fit themselves, theoretically and practically, for their chosen life-employment.

It seems to be the tendency and spirit of the times, if not the demand, that the state should provide such trade and professional schools as will fit all the youth of both sexes for some one of the common employments or professions.

If, during such a course of training as is outlined above, the right kind of moral training is faithfully and judiciously insisted upon, we may have the best assurance that the public—the state—has done its duty in preparing our youth to become industrious, efficient, and honest law-abiding citizens.

THE EDUCATIONAL POWER AND THE UTILITY OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, AND OF MANUAL TRAINING IN OUR GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

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In order that there may be no mistake as to the common ground of this discussion, I present what I understand the word *education* to mean. It is hardly necessary, some may say, to define the term education to a body of professional educators; but we often make mistakes in the definition of terms, and so pardon the superabundant caution which prompts an attempt to define the term education.

I plant the acorn, the seed of the oak. My purpose is to produce an oak tree. I water it. I place around and above it the damp, fine earth. I flood it with sunshine, and protect it from frost and ice. I supply it with all the elements upon which it must feed. Presently it softens and swells and bursts its sheltering walls, and the mysterious life, dormant it may be for years, suddenly, under the fitting conditions, organizes the elements around it, and unfolds with silent, resistless force, the *infolded* tree. Now the size of the tree, its strength, symmetry, and usefulness, depend upon the presence and plenty of food-elements, and the time and manner of supply. Nobody can grow an oak tree *into* this tiny shoot, but under the right conditions an oak tree will grow *out* of it, and the whole world cannot prevent it. Now, the unfolding of the life-principle in the seed by the organizing force at work *is the oak*. So it seems to me, it is with the result we call education. It is the unfolding of the *infolded*, organizing life. It is not something erected on a foundation prepared, but an outgrowth, according to unvarying law, of a life-principle. The more complete the environment is, the greater will the organized product be, and so on, till a perfected environment produces a completed organization. As a part, then, of an environment that is the occasion of the development of the human being, I am to offer industrial education and manual training. I mean by industrial education, instruction about and work in the various commercial industries of the world. Manual training is the employment of the great factor of human progress, the hand. In general terms, any organ of the body engaged in the production of wealth, is rightfully a factor under the term manual training. We find in the human body *three* of these factors: one directive, the eye, and two constructive, the hand and the foot. When these three are brought into actual operation, working together for the accomplishment of some end, the work and the result to the factors is manual training.

Believing, as I do, most firmly in the educating force as well as in the usefulness of a system that shall develop by doing, I do not hesitate to offer it as the best means to a real education to those who believe the end of edu-

ation is being, and as of the highest utility to those who believe that the end of education is doing. Being and doing embrace all there is to be drawn from any life, and that system which produces these in their highest development is the one to be adopted.

It is quite evident, I think, that in order to unfold anything, and make it simple, we must thoroughly understand the order of infolding. If we get hold of the right end of the wound skein, we shall have no trouble in unwinding it. If we can find the natural method of development, our work is confined to preparing the right environment. Premising, then, that the natural development is the true one, and that all educational force is along that line, I inquire, What is the natural method? Let us, if possible, consider this as a child does.

Do you remember how the baby acted when you held the yellow orange, or the red apple, or the ball of colored yarn, before its eyes? The eye was the first thing affected. As you moved the object from right to left, the eye followed it—imperfectly, it may be, but it followed it with interest. After a while, there was a motion of the hand and arm upward and outward; an awkward attempt to take hold of it. What the mental processes were, preceding the motions and continuing with them, we do not know; but that there was brain-activity, and eye-use, and hand-motion, there is no denying. Now, the simple actions of the child, persevered in, repeated and continued, finally accomplished the end of all its activity, viz.: the handling of the object. The key of the whole situation was in the hand of the child; he used it, and the treasure fell at his feet. Shall I designate the key? I do so in these few words: We learn to be by trying to be; we learn to do by attempting to do. This is the key to every hard problem. Do; keep doing. Every failure brings one nearer to success. In order to simplify my theme, I shall use the term "manual training" to designate what in strictness I used the term "industrial education and manual training" to embrace. I trust I shall not be misunderstood.

Unless this method be the natural one, unless it takes hold of the powers of the person, unless it is in harmony with the growth of the being, it is not suited for the proposed purpose. We claim that it is perfectly fitted; that it is not something attached to a child which supplements some defective part, but that it is the law and the only law according to which the unfolding is purely and perfectly natural. Let it be understood then, from the first lesson in training, that the brain, the eye and the hand must work together. According to this scheme we lay hold of the wonderful activity of the child. This volatile quality and quantity—the very image, the personality of the being—is, according to common methods of instruction, treated as a drawback, the possession of it as a crime; as if it must at all hazards be repressed, if not indeed strangled, by those who ought to nurse it to a vigorous life. Our system recognizes the individual *through* this personal activity, and simply directs its busy working. The mental activity and

muscular energy, generated by the food which a good digestion has prepared, are controlled, directed, and used as a motor-force for driving the machine of usefulness. By this method the nature of a thing is learned—not from what somebody has written about it, but from what it is and does.

The next potent factor used is the constructive faculty. I do not stop to analyze this; I simply recognize it as a universal existent in the constitution of every child. Children everywhere love to make something, and if this passion is not so strong in boys of our grammar grades as in those in the primary, it is because the juggernaut of repression has rolled its ponderous wheels over this natural and most healthy faculty, and crushed out its very life. The desire to see and to know what is inside the doll, or music-box, or jumping-jack, is the inception, in a negative form, of the building-up desire. Here begins that most potent of all factors in a real education, the power of observation. He who observes well, needs no teacher—the world and its secrets are waiting at his call. But some one may ask, Can this be developed in pupils so young as those in the grammar schools? Let us see. Suppose you are in a strange place and wish to know if a certain person lives there and where he lives: whom do you ask? Some village boy. A horse passes; you ask who owns it; a boy gives all the information you need. You lose your cow; nobody but the boy has seen her. In short, if you wish to know anything that can be known only by observation, some boy is the repository of the knowledge. Yet, take this boy in the school-room and he is a failure. His lessons are tasks indeed, and all the work he accomplishes is done by memory exercise.

It seems that the school-room, as ordinarily equipped, is as ill-fitted to excite the power of observation as it is possible to have it. Our whole course seems to be about things, not a study of things themselves. The pupils see through the eyes of some one else. They accept his thoughts. They do not draw their own conclusions, simply because they have never observed, have never learned how to weigh evidence, nor to sum up the testimony. In short, there is but little thinking, but an avalanche of memorizing.

Now the method of manual training proposes to cultivate the habit of close observation by the actual process of observing. We never lose sight of the fact that the foundation of all knowledge is the study of things. By the attempt to study what a thing is, and wherein it differs from and is not another thing, we not only acquire a true understanding of the individual object, but what is of many times greater value, the increased power to study and observe the next thing. Thus there follows at once and as a necessary result that particular aptness for simple, singular, continued mind-work which we call mental discipline. The power to see, to observe, to recall, to weigh, to compare, to differentiate, to liken, and to classify, is what makes up what we understand by mental discipline. This, the highest plane of *mentality*, can never be reached by study about a thing; it must be the result of a knowledge of the thing itself.

At this point it is time to make this emphatic declaration: Industrial education and manual training is preëminent as an educational factor, in that it does at every step result in an increase of mental discipline. We claim this for it, and are prepared to maintain it. To prove our claim of its great value as an educational factor, I shall illustrate by what took place in a workshop among a class of boys in manual training. It may be supposed that this did take place in a workshop attached to a public school in a city across the bay. At the close of a lesson, each boy was requested to bring with him for use in the class a piece of wood. Instantly the questions, "What kind?" "How long?" "How large?" fell thick and fast. The teacher simply repeated the request, "Please bring a piece of wood," and dismissed the class. A little before eight o'clock the next morning the shop was open and the teacher was there ready to welcome the boys. He had not long to wait. Soon two boys appeared, each bearing on his shoulders the "piece of wood." One had brought his turning-bar of hickory, the other a lath. A third soon appeared, and sticking out of his pocket was a round ebony ruler. A fourth brought his mother's rolling pin, a fifth a boot-jack, a sixth the round of a chair, a seventh a cigar-box, another a wagon-spoke, another a lignum-vitæ sheave, and so on. The looks of the boys as they brought the different pieces of wood were comical in the extreme. At eight o'clock sharp the bell was sounded and work began. The teacher thanked the boys for their promptness and for the many kinds of wood they had brought, told them the diversity was just what he wished, and then asked them to look very carefully at the different kinds of wood to observe the points of likeness and of difference. He told them he should lay the wood away for a few minutes in order to enable them to recall or recollect what they had observed. He asked them to study carefully, and not to be satisfied with a mere glance, saying that the power to see quickly and accurately was a sure sign of careful training. For a few minutes there was comparative silence, broken by the low, earnest tones of some one trying to convince a doubter. After awhile the teacher asked attention, and with the pupils, carefully studied the woods. The natural history of each wood was called for, and with one or two exceptions, (which at best were mere guesses,) there was a total failure to respond. Some thought that the lignum vitæ, the mahogany and the rosewood came from Southern California, and one declared that every wood there grew in Los Angeles, and said there were many kinds more there. Another thought the hickory and rosewood grew in Yosemite Valley. There was not a real intelligent answer in the class. The teacher was at first inclined to be disheartened, but on second thought he became convinced that he should not have expected anything else, as these boys had been for years doing grade-work, studying for promotion, and had no chance to observe nor to think.

It was impossible to continue the lesson as was intended, so another plan was adopted. Selecting the piece of redwood board that one had brought,

the teacher placed it on two horses, and asked one of the boys to hand him a saw. He explained that he wished to cut a narrow strip from one edge, as long as the wheel-spoke. How should he get the accurate measure? The spoke was lying on the bench on the other side of the shop. One boy suggested measuring with a rule the length of the spoke, and then the same length to be measured off on the board. A second picked up a small stick, measured the spoke, and marked off with the stick the same distance on the board; while a third said, "Lay the spoke on the board, and measure directly." "Which way is the best?" was the question, "for there must be economy in ways and means." Each was a way, and under different circumstances might prove to be the best way. One boy said, "Suppose I had no rule, and could not move the piece that was to measure the other piece?" Evidently, the piece of stick picked up on the floor would answer. If a rule were present, that would do, but if the standard could be moved, as the spoke could be, then that was the thing to do. The teacher was careful not to say, "This way is wrong," or, "That way is wrong." All the ways were, under certain circumstances, right ways; the question was, "Which was the best way?"

Here an important lesson was impressed: that a large number of ways might be right, in that each accomplished a required end, but that under the circumstances, some one way was superior to all others. The question now resolved itself into this: How to get the piece of wood from the board. Some one suggested that it would be a quicker way to split it off, but another answered that the edge would be uneven and splintery, and the piece of unequal width. Sawing was finally decided upon, and two saws were produced. Here a discussion ensued as to which saw to use — the saw with the long teeth, set very raking, or the saw with the short teeth. The boys could not agree in theory, at all, so it was concluded to try the experiment, and see which one would be chosen. The teacher took the short-toothed saw, started the cut, and then told each boy to give four strokes with the short-toothed saw and four with the long-toothed, and to observe carefully, and say nothing till the experiment was concluded. Accordingly, each boy tried each saw. After the last one was through, the teacher called for an expression of opinion. All, without exception, said that the long-toothed saw was the proper one to be used. The observations were these: all found out that the short-toothed saw went through the wood easier, but that it did not advance nearly as rapidly as the long-toothed one. This opinion was unanimous.

Now for a moment pause and consider what took place. There was experiment, observation, a process of weighing the ease of moving the short-tooth, with the increased muscular effort necessary to move the long-tooth, but over against that was the increased length of the kerf in the four cuts by the long-tooth; so there was reason, and, as a result, judgment. To our mind the whole proceeding was grand, because of its absolute truth. Every

experiment tried, with the purpose of finding the truth or falsity of a proposition, is a question direct to God, and He always gives the correct answer.

The piece of wood having been obtained, the next thing was another experiment. Taking the hickory, the redwood, the ash, and the pine pieces of equal size, we proposed to try their relative weight. This opens up a discussion about weight, but we pass that now. There were no scales in the shop, so there seemed no way of definitely settling the question; but it was asked: "Is there no way of finding out definitely the relative weights?" After numerous suggestions, this was what was done. A hatchet was firmly fastened in the vise, the edge sticking up about an eighth of an inch. From an old, worn-out broom the handle was taken and a piece one-and-a-half feet long was sawed out. This much of it was found to be of uniform size and structure. Into each end a tack was driven, to which was attached a string. This stick was placed on the edge of the hatchet, and slipped back and forth till a perfect equilibrium was maintained. A few questions were asked as to the results of certain experiments, such as attaching a weight to one end of our balance and an equal weight to the other, and what would be known if, when two weights were thus attached, one end of the balance should sink toward the ground? After a while the pieces of wood were subjected to trial. The *lignum vitæ* and mahogany were at first suspended from the opposite end of the balance. The *lignum vitæ* went down. "That is the heavier," was the cry. All the woods were tested, and it was found that the soft pine was the lightest of the lot, though one piece of redwood was barely heavier than the pine. The next experiment was to find out if the wood was heavier than the water. This was done by floating the wood in a trough filled with water. After all the experiments and work were completed, this was deduced: Nearly every wood is lighter than water. Now the ascertaining of that fact has a certain money or commercial value, but the best thing about the whole lesson was the power of observation which was in some degree strengthened.

Remember, we are now proving the educational power of manual training. It is well to state here as an economic fact, that the construction of a weighing-beam, or, as it is commonly called, steelyard, grew out of this experiment. Here was a direct result in unmistakable terms, showing the educating power and utility of manual training, for a machine had been constructed accurate enough to give the mass of matter. I wish you now to answer the question fairly, was there not "mental discipline" of the highest order shown here?

I hope I shall not be considered unkind nor unjust if I ask here a question which seems to me to require as a truthful answer the admission of the proposition here set forth. Why is it that the boys attending the country schools (on an average about half as long as those attending the city schools) have so much more real knowledge than those who spend ten months in every year in the city schools? Admitting the fact,—and I think we as

teachers of long experience must admit it,—we must account for it. The habits of observation and the power of doing were acquired somewhere, and I have no hesitation in saying that they came outside of the school instruction. But you ask me instantly, How can this be credited to manual training when you confess it was outside of school instruction? I admit all you say, and will go further, and say that it was in spite of school instruction; but in granting this which you rather exultingly accept, you have surrendered me your only formidable ground of defense.

You have confessed that the present system of graded schools does not accomplish the desired end. I became convinced of this long ago. Now, if there is any way of accomplishing the fact of a real unfolding of the whole power of the being, we must certainly be in favor of trying that way. If any course of instruction in school or out will do this, that is the one we are after. There are a few facts which we must bear in mind in considering this question. The state has, whether wisely or not, taken the matter of education into its hands. It exacts from persons and from property a large amount of money yearly, and directs that it be expended for educational purposes. In the schools which it establishes and maintains, the children of rich and poor alike are gathered, and are taught by teachers licensed according to state law, taught according to a state course of study, out of books sanctioned by the state. Practically, the whole matter of education is, in its inception, growth and continuance, an institution of the state. The people at large are the ultimate source of all this power, bearing cheerfully the burdens laid upon them, and in consequence having a right to demand that the result of all this expenditure shall be in value equal to the cost.

The pupils who are being trained in our schools now are to be the busy men and women of the next ten years. The busy hive of industry will be as full of workers then as now. The age of research, of discovery, and of invention, has just begun. The demands upon those who hold themselves out as teachers are ten-fold greater now than ever before. There is more to lead astray; there is sharper competition; there is an intense earnestness in every direction. Lines of thought are specialized as never before. The ocean of knowledge is so vast that one must be content to explore a small portion of it. There is a call for definite work, definite instruction; for a putting forth of the powers of the being in work between sharply-defined boundaries. Can we afford, longer, to carry out a system that fails to fit our children for real work?

But some one objects. Granting, he says, the desirability and the educational power of manual training, how are we to make a course of study that all can follow? Our city and our country schools are so different in everything, how can any course be laid down that all will measure to? Here is the same old difficulty—fitting the person to the length of the bed. There are just two ways of doing it. One way is to cut off the feet or the head of the long ones, and lengthen—by pulling apart—the short ones; but the

etter way is, to construct the bed-frame so that it can be drawn out or pushed to suit the length and comfort of the one lying on it. Now we propose to adopt the humane, common-sense method of dealing with our differing circumstances. Adopt an elective course, or, what is better, let the locality and its industrial surroundings largely determine the particular means of developing those under instruction.

Bearing in mind that we are now speaking of the educational power of industrial education, and also that this power is measured by the true mental development brought forth, and that this consists in the power to observe, to classify and to do, we are ready to suggest a plan of action. Use the means at hand, the industries engaged in, the life and surroundings of the people of the neighborhood. To illustrate: In a certain part of this State there was a section of country given to the production of honey as a means of livelihood for the people living there. I do not think there was a machine, nor a factory, nor foundry, within twenty miles of the place. There were a few trees, an abundance of wild flowers, and bushes bearing honeysuckles. A young man not twenty years ago was hired as teacher to these twenty or thirty pupils of all ages, of all sizes, of all degrees of mental power and of application. He was there, in ordinary language, to teach the school. The school building was old, battered and defaced; the trustees were not friendly to common schools—"did not think they amounted to much." The large boys were bent on making money. The smaller ones found horseback riding and hunting more sport than attending school. Everything was against good work, so the teacher concluded; and had it not been for the ninety per month for the next six months, the stage one morning would have carried one passenger toward the city. But this feeling left and courage took its place. The first day of school arrived, and brought the teacher's companions for the next six months. The forenoon went, I have not time to tell how, and lunch-time arrived. The teacher's lunch was not very large, and seeing one of the little fellows with a piece of honey that looked delicious, he asked him if he would give him a taste. The boy cut off a large slice and handed it to him with the remark, "Yer kin have all yer want—we've got lots ter home." The teacher very kindly thanked him, and the way was open for conversation, and soon the boy talked freely. The boy said: "*My pā* gets two cent er pound more than his'n does," pointing to another little fellow. "Why?" asked the teacher. "Coz our honey's better. His honey's pizened. Two years ago he bees found a pizen-weed. It had lots of honey, but there was pizen in it. *My pā* commenced putting out sugar near home, and then he cut down all that pizen-bush he could find. Now our bees don't go where it is, but his'n do. I wouldn't eat his honey, for I'd get pizened sure." Here was an economic fact. Commercially one man's honey was worth more than another's. The next morning the teacher called the pupils around him just before school-time, and showed them a bee chloroformed, killed and ready

for examination. During the night he had formed a plan for educating that neighborhood, and his text-book was *the bee*. He asked the boys to bring him as many different kinds of bees as they could find. Each boy promised anywhere from ten to twenty different kinds. On the morrow there were a dozen boxes or more, with single or multiplied compartments, full of bees. Holding a large-necked bottle against one of the boxes, the teacher allowed a half-dozen bees to escape from the box into the bottle. A sponge was held at the mouth of the bottle, upon which the bees were shaken down. To the amazement of the boys, the bees became quiet and to all appearance dead. After a short time the sponge was removed, and, sure enough, the bees fell out dead. Curiosity was at once aroused, and the question, "What made the bees die?" was universal; and for the first time the teacher had the whole class interested. He then told them of this wonderful chloroform, its qualities and its uses—of its power to deaden the sensibility of pain, of its harm when used in large quantities. He at once established his position among his pupils. He had brought something new, and in one thing at least was their superior. Having more bees than were necessary for his purpose, he proposed to let the rest go. One little girl said, "Oh, no; they will get lost." At this two or three boys laughed immoderately. "Bees never get lost," they said. Some doubted this; and to settle the matter the teacher proposed marking the bees, and noticing when they arrived, if at all. How was this to be done? The teacher told them that there was some work to be done first, but that perhaps by half-past three o'clock the work could be completed, and that the next half-hour could be given to these experiments. Everybody was willing, and by three o'clock the work of the day was completed. Then came the delightful hour. The bees were driven into the bottle, the chloroformed sponge was applied, and in a few seconds the bees were quiet. A tiny bit of colored tissue-paper was by mucilage affixed to the body of each, after which they were put into the box and removed to the open air. In a few minutes they began to stir, and soon were lively as ever. One of the older boys had a watch. Comparing it with the teacher's, it was found to be five minutes fast. Asking the large boy to pay careful attention to what he said, he told him that he wished him and the other boys to go to the home of one of the trustees, just two miles distant by the section lines. Said the teacher, "I shall, at four o'clock on the second, let the bees out. Be at the hive and mark carefully when the first arrives, also when the second, and so on, observing how they look, etc. Report to me in the morning." In two minutes nothing was to be found of the boys, but the rattle of a wagon and the clatter of horses' hoofs told the tale of hurrying feet. There had been a mental resurrection there that day. A dead school had been brought to life, and in many a mind a keen desire to know, to find out, had for the first time been thoroughly awakened.

I need not follow the young teacher through the whole term's work. It

is enough to say that in two weeks' time there were classes of children all over the district studying bees, honey, hives, bee-food, the price of honey, the best place for a market, etc. A library relating to bees was purchased by voluntary subscription. The people gathered weekly to study and to compare notes. Experiments were tried, improvements made, inventions were patented, and an advance was made along the whole line. Across a stream that before ran to waste a dam was built, a mill was erected, a box machine was set up, and a hive was constructed and sold in the markets, of superior usefulness, at less cost than the old ones. Growing out of that teacher's work in one year, all this was accomplished. Economically, this was done: The production was increased two hundred and thirty per cent.; the price, by reason of the better quality, was raised seventeen per cent.; the loss of bees was reduced twenty-one per cent.; and the help to handle a given number of pounds of honey was decreased seventy-five per cent.

One word more must be added, to tell the result of the examination which was held on papers sent out by the county superintendent. Of the ten questions in arithmetic, five were missed. One was like this: How high will the water in a vase of given dimensions be raised, by putting into it a wooden ball of given diameter, provided the ball sinks one-half its diameter? This was missed. Another: Four men together bought a grindstone of given diameter; how much shall each grind off in order to get the value of his money? This was missed. Another: If 100 cats kill 100 rats in 100 minutes, how long will it take 50 kittens (three kittens equal to two cats) to kill 50 rats? This was missed. Two others of like degree of concentrated idiocy and stupidity were missed. In geography, this was missed: Name all the cities ten degrees south of the degree of latitude which runs through Pittsburgh. Name and locate the counties in Nevada. This, also: Write a full, four-page description of Patagonia. This: Does the Mississippi river run up-hill? Some others were missed, so that when the papers were sent back to the superintendent's office, and were passed upon, this came to the teacher:

MR. BLANK—*Dear Sir:* I report upon your papers as follows: Neatness, 10; grammar and composition, 10; use of correct marks, 10; writing, 9.5; arithmetic, 5; geography, 5; practical essay on hygiene, 10; business form, 10; spelling, 9.

Your class in arithmetic and geography is the lowest in the county. I do not believe the trustees will want you another year.

—————, *County Superintendent.*

The next mail, however, carried a written agreement between the trustees and teacher for a ten-months school, at a salary of one hundred and twenty-five dollars per month.

Now, I hold that in any district in this state there are outside helps enough to make manual training and industrial training entirely practicable. If we cannot bring the workshop into the school, we can carry the school into the workshop. We must go outside the four walls of the recitation-room if we are to carry on a real education. Remember that whatever calls forth

the infolded capacity of the child is a means of education. This is a law as immutable as God, and the solemn duty is laid upon us of providing such environment as shall educate upward. The child is being educated by these outside forces, and we cannot help it. Now let us take the opportunity first, and make everything around us a helpful factor to the pupil.

I take it that the power to observe, brought forth and trained by any system, is good for all investigation. How can this necessary faculty be so thoroughly trained as in making experiments with things? Every experiment is a question. That which comes is an answer to some question, whether it be to one we ask or not. When we have once acquired the habit of experimenting we become independent thinkers—then and only then does real education begin. We claim for manual training that it cultivates as nothing else can do habits of exactness. There can be no cutting of corners if we would have good work. The use of the rule and of the square in measuring patterns, it may be, will do more to train the eye to exactness than all the text-books in the world. After the marking, the actual practice in sawing, planing, filing, boring, mortising, is the best royal road to the education of the hand. The properties of things are made plain only by work in those things, and an acquaintance with the laws of matter, as to mass and molecule, is gained only by a hand-to-hand struggle. Another result of the real work in manual training, is the creation of a love of reading and of study along in the line of any particular work. Only last week I listened with a great deal of interest to a conversation between two young architects concerning the wonderful work of another architect, and it came out that both had been studying the published life and works of this man, one of them paying over one hundred dollars for a certain edition.

Thus it is that some definite line of work laid out and followed almost compels the careful study of the work of like craftsmen.

Not only is this true along the same line of work, but it increases study of contributing employments. Thus the miner must, if he be intelligently successful, study geological formation; must know in what kind of rock to look for gold; must understand the effect of different kinds of explosions; must be able to use intelligently and economically the quicksilver; in short, must read and study and experiment in many ways outside of his real work.

The machinist is interested in and studies moulding and forging iron, and is quite likely to understand mining and smelting the ore. The miller, besides being up to the times in his own particular trade, studies the use of machinery, its proper care and setting-up, the proportion of work done by one machine compared with that done by another. He is interested in the different kinds of wheat or other grain that he uses, and must know of the climate and soil of a particular place before he will contract for his year's supply, for he knows that a few days more or less of sunshine, the absence of certain elements in the soil, will show at the end of the year on the hundreds of thousands of bushels of grain that he has ground, a gain or loss on his

ance-sheet. This habit of studying what others know about a thing is very important; for what we know about a thing and what others have published about it, is all that is known about it.

In the school in every school district in the land I would have as adjuncts hereto the study and practice of every industry that could be reached by its pupils. I would call in as helpers the carpenters, the joiners, the blacksmiths, the machinists, the farmers, the doctors, the lawyers, the merchants, the book-keepers, the bankers, and the capitalists. If any of these citizens would not come to the school-house, then I would take the pupils to them. I would make the generation, full of experience, that is moving across and on the stage of busy life, help by its advice and experience those coming on. There has been no such closeness between the real builders of society and the young growing up into society as there should have been.

I come now to the last thought of this discussion—the moral power there ✓ in a system of manual and industrial training. “The devil never goes where he hears the anvil’s ring,” is an old saying; meaning, of course, that idleness and crime are not companions. The old saying, “Idleness is the mother of vice,” sings in the same strain. In a conversation with John McComb, the warden of the California state prison at San Quentin, I stated to him the ascertained fact in a neighboring state, that only fifteen per cent. of the inmates had, prior to being committed, learned a trade, while over fifty per cent. had a grammar-school education. He answered that from observation he had no doubt a like percentage of non-tradesmen would be found in the one or two thousand convicts there. These statistics mean a great deal. If the public-school system has been instrumental in starting fifty per cent. of the boys in the right road, what would it not do if to it were added the real educational force of manual training?

Our boys do not, in most cases, go to perdition because they want to go there. In many cases, by a lack of training in anything that will enable them to get their daily bread, they are forced to acts of dishonesty in order to provide the necessary things of life. As I stand before you to-day, I believe it to be a crime before God to educate any boy or girl up to a state of want, and cultivate appetite, and not at the same time put in their hands the means of honestly supplying such wants and appetites. When boys and girls are taught directly, or indirectly, that they are above manual labor, that it is beneath them to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow, that only is a wrong done to the state in depriving it of a working factor, that a wrong is done to the child, and the foundation laid for idleness, vice, and crime. Our system magnifies the nobility and worth of labor. It points to our farms, to our granaries, to our workshops, our warehouses, our ships, and our merchandise; to our commerce, to our railroads, canals, bridges, and tunnels, our steam engines, our pavilions, our fair-buildings, and to our homes, and says: “Behold my handiwork.” The earth produces the raw material; man is to mould and to fashion it, to subdue it; and his crown of

excellence is emblazoned with these words: "Behold what my hand hath wrought."

The question which confronts us is a grave one. What shall we do with the ten millions of school-children in the land? Shall we train them to remember, simply; to get what somebody else has digested; to toil for naught; or shall we take hold of them and ask them to see, to observe, to compare, to classify? Shall the most perfect of all things in the material world—the hand—be exercised not at all, or only in play, and thus lose the power to do? Shall we not rather educate every power of the whole being, and by the use in manual training of the hand, guided by the eye and put into active operation by the busy brain, educate fully and symmetrically?

DISCUSSION.*

MRS. STOWE thought that the systems of the kindergarten should be extended into the colleges and universities, as far as *plays* are concerned; no one should ever grow too old to play.

L. S. THOMPSON, of Indiana, did not believe that manual training had any particular power to develop morality. Many of the most industrious people are immoral. We are told that manual training is altruistic, but that merely mental training is selfish. This is not clear, since morality lies in the intuitive.

ZALMON RICHARDS did not consider a rum-seller as an industrious man. The bearing of industry on morals is that the boy trained to industry will be less likely to fall into immoral habits. Still, every child should be trained in morals as well as in arithmetic.

MR. SHOAF said that he thought that the training of the hand induces directly good morals.

MR. THOMPSON did not believe that the mere exercise of the muscles of the hand has any moral character. The entire morality and dignity of labor depends on the motive. There is no dignity in mere muscular labor. If there is, the dignity of the donkey is greater than that of the man.

W. E. SHELDON, of Boston, asked Mr. Crawford whether there have been any experiments with manual training in grammar schools on the Pacific coast where it did not interfere with the intellectual training.

MR. CRAWFORD: Emphatically, *Yes*. Manual training was introduced into the grammar grades of the Oakland schools perhaps eight hours a week. The boys who took manual training took the same text-book work as the other boys, and in their examinations in text-book work stood as high as the others.

* Reported by the Secretary.

MR. SHELDON: That is very important testimony.

MR. CRAWFORD then described in detail the methods pursued in the Oakland school and their practical results.

MRS. PURDY, of San Francisco, asked what had been done for the girls.

MISS KENNEDY, of San Francisco, replied that considerable work had been done in the San Francisco schools in sewing, crocheting lace, and other needle-work.

MR. SHELDON stated that in the Boston schools good cooking was done by the girls, the food being prepared from the raw material by the girls; and that the forty girls who did the best cooking in the Hancock school, Boston, were the girls who received the highest awards for scholarship.

In reply to the request of Mr. RICHARDS, Mr. SHELDON gave an account of a lady carpenter in Springfield, Massachusetts, who studied and practiced carpentry, having learned it in a carpenter shop. She then learned blacksmithing with the greatest success.

MR. THOMPSON stated that in Purdue University the lady students do as good work in wood-carving as the young men.

JOHN M. ORDWAY, of Louisiana, maintained that cooking is properly classified as manual training, and is also moral in its effects. The cooking in the Boston schools will do good.

H. H. BELFIELD called attention to the report of the principal of the Toledo high school as fully answering the inquiry whether manual training interferes with intellectual training.

MR. RICHARDS maintained that all manual training should be educational, and should prepare a boy for his future life. He also asked whether any effort had been made to teach boys to sew? His own early education had included this accomplishment, and he had found it very useful.

MR. SHELDON stated that years ago boys in Boston were taught to sew.

MR. ORDWAY wished to call attention to the difference between *teaching to work* and manual training. The two are very different.

THE RELATION OF MANUAL-TRAINING SCHOOLS TO TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

C. M. WOODWARD, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

Up to ten years ago, students entered technical schools with no knowledge of either drawing or the uses of constructive tools. As a consequence, a large share of their time in those schools was devoted to elementary drawing, and if they had laboratory work in physics or mechanics, they either bungled ex-

cessively in vain attempts to execute work for which they were quite unfitted, or they started in the a-b-c work of that sort as well. In either event the result was a loss or a waste of time. After seven years of experience in supervising manual training in the polytechnic school of Washington University, I reached the conclusion that the elements of shopwork and mechanical draughting should be introduced into preparatory schools. The St. Louis Manual-Training School was the result. If it has a special aim—I am hardly prepared to admit that it *has* a special aim of any sort—it is to properly prepare students for admission to the polytechnic. When I say this I do not mean to admit that its course of training and study is warped, and therefore to any extent unsuited to those students who do not complete the course, or to those who, having completed the course, do not enter the polytechnic.

And first, let me clear up some of the confusion which exists in the public mind in regard to the functions of a manual-training school.

To begin with, it is not a technical school. Technical schools, schools of technology, polytechnic schools, are all the same, or should be all the same. If we wish our schools to be generally understood, we must give them intelligible names. The best usage employs the Greek root *tech* to signify an art resting upon higher scientific principles, adequately worked out in practice; and a technically trained man is one well versed in both the theory and practice of some branches of applied science; *i. e.*, he is a civil engineer, a mining engineer, a mechanical engineer, a hydraulic engineer, an electrical engineer, an analytic chemist, or an architect. His work is to plan, to calculate, to devise, to direct, and to supervise works and working-men. In short, he is a professional man. A technical school, then, should involve the most thorough discussion of scientific principles, ample facilities for experimental work, both on familiar ground and in new fields, and adequate resources for teaching the best engineering theory and practice in one or more fields.

Some of the technical schools assume from the first that the applicant has selected his field for engineering study before applying for admission. A student entering the Troy Polytechnic knows that he is to study civil engineering. Another enters a school of mines, or a school of architecture, with an equally definite aim. In other schools the decision as to a professional course is not made till the end of the freshman, or sophomore year, as in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Washington University, St. Louis, and in most State universities. Still other schools are schools of science only, giving no regular technical instruction in the line of professions.

It is obvious that the word technical is a generic term, and admits a large family of courses which naturally overlap each other more or less.

Such being the admitted scope of the institutions properly called technical, what shall we call that class of lower-grade schools which teach, not professions based upon a mastery of scientific principles, but simple arts

with no systematic study of science. To call such schools "art schools" would be worse than to call them technical schools, for the phrase, "art school," is universally held to cover a school for the study of the fine arts. A practical art without the systematic science is clearly only a trade, or a craft. It is well recognized that a trade differs from a profession partly in degree, and partly in kind. Put into a craft a thorough mastery of the scientific principles involved, and bring to its aid the willing forces of nature which are always standing ready for the harness, and you convert the craft into a profession, and your craftsman takes his degree; your barber becomes a dentist; your machinist and engineer becomes a dynamic engineer.

Such transformations are all the while going on, and as a consequence, many trades are taking on the characteristics of professions, so that it may be hard for us to agree upon the line of separation. But such agreement is not at all necessary. What we do need is, a general understanding of the main distinctions I have made.

Now there are thousands of "trade" or "industrial" schools in Europe, but very few in this country. We have had, for several years, an Industrial Department of this Association, yet I have never known an industrial school to be represented on our programme, or to make any exhibit at our expositions. The nearest approach to it is, perhaps, the Women's Industrial Institute, of New York city, now exhibiting its work in the Pavilion.

To be sure, we have plenty of "industrial schools," but falsely so called. Just as no school for boys under thirteen years of age can properly be called a "technical" school, so no school for general training in drawing, and the use of wood-working and metal-working tools, can properly be called either technical or industrial. The school has a new function, and it must have a new name.

The name I proposed for the St. Louis school, in 1879, was that of "Manual-Training School." It has met with much favor, both in this country and in England; and though the etymologists have been trying to make it cover a great deal that was not intended, it is likely to be generally adopted. Hence, I urge upon all teachers and school officers who are responsible for the names applied to their schools, to adopt this name for those higher grammar or secondary grades which systematically incorporate line-drawing and instruction in the theory and use of tools into their course of study.

We have, then, to recapitulate, three kinds of schools which are to be clearly distinguished: 1, manual-training schools; 2, trade or industrial schools; and 3, technical schools.

The first and last are related as successive members of a system. The graduate of the manual enters the technical school as a freshman. The relation of the trade school to the others is not clearly established; it does not exist sufficiently to render a definite statement possible. It may be parallel with the manual or it may follow it, according to its grade and purpose. If

it sets out to train ordinary first-class journeymen, using for that purpose training shops and the class methods of instruction, it runs parallel with the manual school, but reverses the manual programme of two hours per day in shop and all the rest of the time in study, recitations, and drawing; and gives six or eight or ten hours per day to shop-work, and the rest of the time to drawing and study. Of course the journeyman turned out under such circumstances is a very different thing from the graduate of the manual. He has learned a trade and he is prepared to follow it, and he is prepared for nothing else. His shop instruction has not taken a wide range like that of our manual boy who has worked impartially at the wood-bench, the speed-lathe, the anvil, the moulding-bench, the engine lathe, the planer, the drill-press, the vise, and the draughting-stand, as well as carried on his work in science, literature, and mathematics.

If on the other hand the trade school is of a higher grade, and proposes to train foremen and master workmen, it will follow the manual-training school, taking its graduates, or such as find themselves fitted and disposed for such careers, and give them the full details of a mechanical trade in short order. The superintendent of the Missouri Pacific shops in St. Louis wrote me that he had tried several manual-training boys as apprentices, and that he would gladly fill his shops with such boys if he could get them. He found them apt, alert, ambitious, and attentive, and they soon distanced boys of the same age who had spent as many years in the shops as the manual boys had in their school. This gives some indication of the general and special value of the training the school gives. It shows that those who enter mechanical pursuits after a course in a manual school are to raise those pursuits from the level of mere trades, and to make them take on some of the characteristics of professions. This to my mind is one of the great missions of manual education. It is to enable a young man, whose circumstances and fitness seem to destine him to a mechanical pursuit, to rise to new dignity, power and usefulness through training and study and culture in his pursuit instead of out of it. There is scarcely an honorable occupation which does not admit of unlimited improvement through the aid of science and applied mechanics; and it is characteristic of a wholesome and rational progress in civilization for the brightest and best minds to rise and progress without changing occupations. Society as a whole must be in a bad way when the brightest mechanics have no means of expanding and developing their mental powers, except by totally deserting the sphere in which after all they may have been best suited to rise.

But in point of fact, very few of the graduates of the manual-training school become mechanics in the ordinary sense of that word. While profiting greatly and consciously by their contact with tools and practical methods, they find brighter and more promising fields than that of the worker for daily wages. Their drawing, their tool-work, their mathematics, and their general intelligence, fit them to be valuable assistants in a great variety of *semi-clerical*, semi-industrial work which is both pleasant and lucrative.

But the most popular choice of manual graduates is that of higher education; and in courses of higher study, so far as my observation goes, they are eminently successful. At present, the largest feeder of the university is the manual-training school. Its graduates are found in every class—freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, and fifth-year; and in all they are characterized by clear-thinking, and fondness for severe intellectual work. In view of the great influence which manual-training schools are thus exerting upon technical schools, the question of their relationship is very pertinent.

Turning, then, to the relation which the manual-training sustains to the technical school, let me for a moment consider its curriculum. It must evidently give a thorough training in the lower mathematics—arithmetic, algebra, plane and solid geometry. There will be abundant opportunity to use the facts and methods of arithmetic and geometry in the shops and drawing-rooms; but no familiarity with the facts, no facility in instrumental drawing, should obscure the value of purely geometrical reasoning. Algebra is rarely applied unless one needs its methods in higher physics, mechanics, and astronomy. As a rule, not one student in five goes far enough in mathematics, pure and applied, to make an intelligent use of his algebra; nevertheless, his knowledge of its elementary methods must be full and clear.

The elements of botany, chemistry, and physics, including at least their phenomenal sides, and some of the more obvious generalizations, should be thoroughly studied during the course at the manual; but in every case the laboratory method should be used. Generalizations made by an author, for which no sufficient evidence is presented to the student, are of no educational value. They are like assertions in history, or geography, which are to be taken on faith. Real objects, personal experiments and tests—I care not how familiar they may be to the teachers—must give the student his basis for judgment and generalization. Above all, I would advise teachers to avoid putting their elementary students at really new work; at strictly original research. All the ground should be familiar to the teacher, and, though the pupil approaches it as a learner—as a discoverer of new truth—the teacher should, as a rule, know what he ought to find. I have no patience with premature researches and childish inventions. I am inclined to think that chemistry is easier to teach in a laboratory than physics, on account of the latter's great demand for skill in manipulation and construction in the physical laboratory. One must be somewhat familiar with all work in woods and metals in order to properly study physics. In future, we shall put our study of heat, electricity, sound and light after the study of chemistry, in order to give time for the tool-training needed.

In a technical school, students have little time for history and literature; hence both should come systematically into the preliminary, or manual-training school. The students are old enough to appreciate something of style, and to tell good writing from bad. By conscious imitation of good writers, they readily learn to say things clearly, to use language accurately

when they know what the thought is which they are to express; and they can easily master the simple mechanical details of composition. American and English history, and possibly some general European history, should be learned early, and always with a certain amount of geographical study.

No technical student should be ignorant of the elements of Latin, and a fair reading command of at least one modern language in addition to his own. No study of words is so fruitful in clear analysis and a high appreciation of the importance of slight changes of form, of endings, and auxiliaries, as that of Latin. It matters comparatively little whether the student remembers in after years the vocabulary or the exact forms of Latin verbs; the important thing is that he will never look upon any language without feeling the influence of his Latin study. Either French, German, or Spanish, should be carefully studied at least one year before entering the technical school.

Experience has shown that the drawing course can be carried much farther in the preparatory schools than was formerly supposed possible. The drawings now on exhibition in the Pavilion show what can be done with boys of high-school grade in a manual-training school. In the first place, they readily master orthographic and isometric projections, and employ them naturally in both freehand and instrumental work. They rapidly become expert in the use of tee-square, triangles, drawing-pen and brush, using India ink or colors. Accuracy, clearness and finish are acquired by systematic study of elements, and there is no lack of interest, though picture-making is very rarely indulged in. A certain number of very instructive drawings must be made by each student to illustrate abstract principles and to represent ideal forms; but in all cases where it is possible to draw from objects, objects only should be used.

In the selection of objects, great care should be taken to find simple ones, and yet a wide variety. Pupils are rarely fit to make their own selections. Some of the elementary principles of descriptive geometry may be introduced. With the exception of a little conventional perspective, so called, I would leave perspective for the technical school.

The elements of tool-work in woods and metals I regard as eminently appropriate to the educational work in the manual-training school. It is admirably fitted to meet the physical, mental, and moral natures of all healthy boys from the age of thirteen to eighteen. I make this statement without any reservation whatever. I am speaking now about manual training-schools, but were I talking about classical schools which do not have tool-work in their course of study, I should say the same thing; nay, I think I should say it with greater emphasis in reference to those classical schools which afford so little opportunity for dealing with the concrete, and for getting primitive notions of the laws and properties of matter and force.

DISCUSSION.*

W. G. RAYMOND, of California, said that the most prevailing fault of our common method of education is the turning out half-educated men. The object of the technical school is to teach men to manage the forces of nature. What better way to teach a man to handle things than to have him handle things? In the technical school the student is taught the theory of strength of materials; he learns this much more easily and readily if he has worked in and with these materials.

MR. KROLL, of St. Louis, spoke of the danger of a popular opinion that a manual-training school is simply a tool-using school, while it is in reality a high school, with certain studies omitted and others added. Mr. Kroll claimed that the manual-training school gives a general education, and illustrated by reference to the curriculum, and criticised the technological school curriculum as too narrow.

JOHN M. ORDWAY, of New Orleans, said, that while the manual-training school does fit for the technological school better than any other school, it also fits for all other schools, and for actual life. In biology and chemistry, the best students are those who have had such culture, which is a training for laboratory work. The skill acquired in the manual-training school assists in and prepares for laboratory work in many departments. In Tulane University *every* student must take drawing and manual training, no matter what course is contemplated; and the result is very perceptible and very beneficial in leading them to think.

A question having been asked by GEO. H. ATKINSON, of Portland, in regard to manual training for girls, MR. WOODWARD gave a brief account of the girls' work in the Toledo high school, and PRESIDENT FAIRCHILD described the work of the Kansas State Agricultural College, including dressmaking and cooking, both of which topics are taught scientifically and practically. The cooking follows a course in chemistry. A course in the dairy follows, including the domestic manufacture of butter. The course in drawing is the same for both sexes. The work with compound microscope has been found to be aided by the preceding work with the apparatus of the various laboratories.

* Reported by the Secretary.



PROCEEDINGS
AND
ADDRESSES
OF THE
DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION.



DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, July 18, 1888.

The Department of Art Education was called to order by the President, G. H. Bartlett, of Boston.

The Secretary of the Department being absent, on motion of Miss Locke, of St. Louis, T. J. Richardson, of Minneapolis, was selected to act as secretary during the session.

The proceedings were opened by the President, who delivered the annual address.

The next event on the programme was a paper by L. S. Thompson, of Lafayette, Indiana: "Is the Educational Value of the Construction of Objects in the Public Schools Over-estimated?"

The discussion of the paper was participated in by Miss Locke, who deprecated the tendency to make the study of objects an independent craze; by Mr. Bailey, who asked whether Mr. Thompson considered modeling in clay of educational value enough to warrant its introduction into all the grades; and by Mr. Ames, who would limit *making* strictly to *drawing*.

The following committees were then appointed by the Chair:

Committee on Nominations — L. S. Thompson, Lafayette, Ind.; M. H. Bancroft, Pennsylvania; and P. A. Garrett, California.

The President, after a few remarks, appointed as a committee of specialists, to report on the merits of each and every exhibit of the art department at the Pavilion, Albert H. Munsell and H. T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Theo. J. Richardson, of Minnesota; and W. G. Raymond, J. J. McDay, and Miss R. F. English, of California.

The next paper was by Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts, on "Historic Ornament and Design in Our Public Schools." The paper was illustrated by blackboard sketches and prepared charts.

After a short discussion, in which the paper was generally commended, the meeting adjourned until Friday afternoon at half-past two o'clock.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 20, 1888.

At 2:30 the meeting came to order, with President Bartlett in the chair. The Secretary's minutes were read and approved.

The Committee on Nominations reported the following list:

President—Langdon S. Thompson, Lafayette, Indiana.

Vice-President—Theodore J. Richardson, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Secretary—Miss M. Louise Field, Boston, Massachusetts.

The nominees were elected by acclamation.

The Committee on Art Exhibits then presented its report.*

The President, G. H. Bartlett, then read a paper on "Free Industrial Evening Drawing Schools." An impromptu discussion of the paper followed, in which a number participated. Mr. Thompson thought "manual training should be introduced into the grammar schools." Mr. Richardson mentioned the old-fashioned jack-knife as something always ready and reliable for a grammar-grade boy. Mr. Bailey seconded the remarks, and in answer to the question, What shall the girls do? claimed that the girls could out-whittle the boys. Mr. Bancroft pleaded for manual training, for the intellectual development it affords. Mr. Entz wanted more unity of tastes on these subjects.

Albert H. Munsell then read a paper on "The Importance of a High Aim in the Teaching of Drawing."

The meeting then adjourned *sine die*.

T. J. RICHARDSON, *Secretary pro tem*.

* See Special Reports and Addresses at the end of the volume.

PAPERS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

G. H. BARTLETT, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

We from the East greet you from the North, the South, and the West. Teachers of California, we grasp you in the bonds of true fellowship. We are here to answer to the roll-call of duty and pleasure. Your bugle-call was so loud and long that even those mighty giants of nature who lift their hoary heads in presence of the regal sun, obeyed your summons and echoed it across your mountain torrents and rolling prairies until it died in the swelling bosom of the Atlantic; and so we have come, and our hearts are glad. Those whose privilege it has been to travel across this vast continent must have been impressed with the truth that all nature is but a marvelous and consummate object-lesson, appealing to our minds and hearts by the exercise of all our senses. What a series of these lessons have we had in coming from the East to California!

The Infinite Teacher, unfolding from the archives of His creation all its manifold splendors, both in its construction and adornment—the nestling valleys, the laughing rivulets, the undulating plains, bending their fertile plumage to the whispering wind, the towering mountains, bathing their ancient heads in the sun's genial warmth as they did on the first morn, when they awoke from their chaotic sleep and reared their lofty peaks from the womb of Chaos—with all these wonders did He instruct us in nature's own language, form, and color. And how beautifully and logically were the lessons rendered, never savoring of monotony; at one time a lesson in form, next a lesson in the appearance of form, as the objects gradually receded from our eye. Then comes still another subject in nature's great curriculum: this time it is harmony and balance of color. Again a change, and it is the perspective of light and shade, projection of shadows and reflections, and finally it resolves itself into a grand lesson in design, every unit in the vast scheme being stamped with God's eternal law of fitness to purpose.

Never in the history of this Association, and especially of this Department, have the members who have attended its annual gatherings passed through scenes so calculated to stimulate them to rise to higher planes in their noble profession. The handiwork of the Infinite Teacher was everywhere reminding us that object-teaching should be universal. May each successive mountain towering above its fellow remind us that we are not to waste our time

in looking back or in quibbling over idle theories, but are still to press on to scale those higher peaks in the range of learning that lie before us, until the refrain "Excelsior," ever ringing in our ears, is hushed in the sleep of the tomb, and the break of morn of our immortal youth shall be gladdened by the words, "Well done, thou good and faithful servant."

This is one of our gala-days. We have met here to refresh our minds at the fountain of interchange of thought. We are here to speak, to listen, and to discuss many important subjects which pertain specially to our Department in education, and when our session shall have closed, I believe we all shall say that it was good for us to have been here.

The realm of education is but one vast garden, each one engaged therein having his or her special work to perform. Yonder is a sweet flower, a tender plant, a toddling child in the primary school: it is trying to express itself in that language which all children love—drawing; or it is trying to fashion a little ball or marble out of clay. But see, it is in trouble; the clay is too wet, and will not be shaped as the little one wishes; or it may be the naughty point of the slate pencil has broken. Never mind, little one; teacher is coming; you will soon be helped out of your trouble.

Be of good cheer, those of you who tend these tender plants, these budding flowers; you shall reap a rich harvest yet. Although at times your work may seem hard and full of discouragements, they will yet repay you for your loving, moulding influence. Fear not; look onward and upward; for to the faithful teachers is the promise that their work shall not return unto them void.

And those of us who have to prune into shapely form the plants of sturdier growth, and of less yielding fiber, should take courage, also, for they must yield to the influence of earnest and healthful instruction. I am persuaded that we shall never rise to the highest plane in our profession until we fully realize the weighty responsibilities which it entails upon all those engaged in it. "Only a teacher," "only a school marm"; how often are these jeering remarks made by those who are too ignorant to realize that teachers are, or should be, the motive forces of all that is good and great in the varied and complex machinery of life. The work of teachers does not begin or end within the four walls of the class-room. Ah, no; their work cannot be better symbolized than by the circle—a form which, to all appearance, has no beginning and no end. What great possibilities open up to the teachers in our public schools in the different branches of education! What treasures of living, formative material are committed to their charge! Humanly speaking, they possess the power of making the boy the father of the man, or, in other words, of giving a bias to these budding intelligences that in a great measure must tend to fix their character as men and women.

It is for us as teachers to grasp, to realize, this important fact; and by so doing we shall soon become impressed with our great responsibilities, and determine that example, both in the class-room and out of it, shall take pre-

cedence of theory and precept. As teachers of drawing, we should see to it that the first steps of our pupils or students receive from us healthful and elevating vitality. Our work is to present and mark out the road—theirs to walk along that road, making their own foot-prints as they go. We should seek to forget self and have our identity as teachers scattered and absorbed by our pupils. We should remember that every object, or its representation, which is presented to the visual perception of children, creates a mental image, and for this reason it will be seen how important it is to select that which will create a pleasing and healthful one. Children are very impressionable, and the mental image created in their minds remains there long after the positive or exciting cause has been removed or destroyed. Let us also remember that the subject which we have to teach appeals to the mind through two of the keenest senses, sight and touch.

In fancy let us go back to our childhood's days and again sit around the family table, and remember with what eagerness and pleasure we turned over the leaves of the picture-book, and I think that many of us will be obliged to admit that those very pictures produced mental images some of which have remained with us even to this day.

Now out of this truth is evolved a very important lesson to all teachers, and especially to us who are engaged in teaching drawing. I will make bold to say there is no more important factor in biasing the mind of the child for good or evil than the language of drawing, especially when it is of a pictorial nature; and the same may be said regarding its influence upon those of maturer years.

But in spite of all the difficulties that surround our path, let us press forward with a high aim in view, and feel proud of our chosen profession, for do we not teach the a b c and grammar of one of the oldest languages by and through which man, from the earliest periods of the world's history, has signified some of his highest aspirations? Do not the relics of the graphic arts of the ancient nations which have been preserved reveal to us to-day in the most emphatic manner their character and habits? And in view of the important role which these arts have played in the world's history, it must be admitted that an obligation has been entailed by them on the civilized and religious world which can never be repaid.

Was it not by them that truth was kept alive through all the religious and political convulsions of the dark ages? Did not the early Christians, by crude geometric sign and symbol, teach the doctrines of revealed truth? Was not the transition from the spiritual darkness of paganism and the teachings of its philosophy to the light of revealed truth aided in a marvelous degree by this language? Did it not do more than anything else in building up the early Christians in the fundamental principles of their faith, and has not its almost divine inspiration bequeathed to the world the priceless treasures produced during the Renaissance by those great masters Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonardo de Vinci? They were indeed a constella-

tion of mighty genius, who have shed their refining influence on social life for all time. Let us also feel that we are engaged in a noble work, and that if we perform our duty with earnestness and in all sincerity the world will be better for our having lived.

**IS THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE CONSTRUCTION
OF OBJECTS IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS OVER-
ESTIMATED?**

L. S. THOMPSON, LAFAYETTE, INDIANA.

If this question is asked in reference to the schools of our whole country, we must answer unhesitatingly, No; since not one school in twenty values the construction of objects at all. If it is asked with reference to a few enthusiastic advocates, we should be inclined to say, Yes; because we do not believe it is to be anything like a panacea for our present school defects. But such answers as these would be a very unsatisfactory discussion of the question.

We know of no better method of answering this question in its present form than to present what we believe to be the true educational value of the construction of objects in school-work, and then allow our hearers to judge whether or not its value is over or underestimated.

The chief value of school exercises of any kind is to stimulate thought, feeling, and desire, and to furnish a motive for their expression in some form so as to leave a desirable residuum in the character.

Man's thoughts are aroused by his environment—by matter, by things—but more than all else by contact of mind with mind, or of spirit with spirit. All things in nature and in art are the expression of some mind, or of some creative spirit. If the contact of the body, and the mind through the body, with things, does not reveal the mind or the spirit of the maker, there is no stimulation, there is no growth, there is no education. But perhaps some one asks, Can we deal with things without discovering mind or spirit? We think it is not only possible, but that it is very generally the case. Things are passive, and they have no magical power to reveal their contents. If they had any such power, our agriculturists and our mechanics, who are constantly dealing with things, should be more intellectual and spiritual than we generally find them, and every savage ought to be a scientist. It is only, then, as we believe, when we deal with things according to true educational principles that thought is excited.

When thought has been excited or aroused, it may be formulated or expressed in two general ways: in elements of *time*, or in elements of *time* and *space* combined. Perhaps there are no pure space methods.

The time methods may be divided into *inarticulate sounds*, *spoken language*, and *music*. Spoken language includes *oratory*, without gesture, and *poetry*, unwritten.

The mixed methods include: (1) *Gesture*, or pantomime; (2) *written language*, including hieroglyphics; (3) *architecture*, including all kinds of making or manufacture; (4) *sculpture*, including all kinds of modeling; (5) *painting*, including all kinds of representation by appearances.

Man uses all of these methods of expression, and we believe they are necessary for the fullest development of character, the primal and ultimate end of all education and occupation. It may not be easy to determine which of these comes first in order, or which is the most important. Colonel Parker thinks gesture comes first, but it is difficult for the writer to see how it can precede the use of the human voice, which is one of the sound, or time methods, and the most direct and spiritual of all ordinary methods of communicating thought or emotion.

Undoubtedly the human spirit uses all the members of the body, such as the eyes, the hands, the feet, the mouth, etc., for the purpose of manifestation or expression; but we believe the larynx is nearer the soul than any of these members, not even excepting the hands. This fact, we believe, explains the secret of oratory. The speaker who puts his soul into his larynx will be heard, although he should tie his hands behind his back. This fact, as we believe, also explains why it is that for ages the learning of languages should have been considered the great and indispensable means of education. This great confidence in language, however, is only warrantable when the one who uses language has the fullest possible conception of its meaning.

To express thought in space and time methods requires more time than if it were expressed in time methods alone. Hence, time methods will always take precedence when they can be used, and the space methods will only be used when time methods are not so effective, or when they cannot be used at all. There are special thoughts, and there are special circumstances, that require special methods, and then no choice may be possible; but no one will write his thoughts if spoken words will do as well; nor does one draw, or paint, except when words fail, on account of distance or some other cause. Drawing, then, although a universal language, can never become a common method of merely *expressing* thought, because it consumes too much time. It must be made to satisfy other desires, or needs, than mere expression. It must express thought better, more clearly, or more beautifully, or it must yield to other methods.

Intense thought and emotions will always use the time methods of expression, when possible, as space methods are only applicable when there is time for meditation and execution.

In view, then, of the preceding, what place should the space or mixed methods of expression have in our schools? As we understand the question, the chief value of these space methods is to stimulate observation, and thus

to give fuller concepts, in order to make the time methods more effective, more definite, more vivid. Also, the construction of objects, which is a space or mixed method, is desirable because it stimulates self-activity, which is an indispensable condition of all mental growth.

Again, ultimate ends, such as the formation of character, must be kept in view by the teacher; but these same ultimate ends have little or no influence on the pupil: he must work for immediate ends. That person takes a long step in advance, in power and skill as a teacher, who learns how to convert ultimate or far-distant ends into the immediate aims of the pupil. To the teacher the end in view may be the growth of the pupil in nobility of character, which can only be secured by the pleasurable self-activity of the student; but instead of presenting this view to him as an inducement to action, he sets him the task of making something which is an immediate and desirable end or aim for the pupil. Making, then, furnishes one of the most convenient ways of converting a hidden or unseen future good into an immediate and tangible present purpose or aim.

In our schools as at present organized, perhaps not all of the methods of expression are practicable to their fullest extent, but we believe types of all of them may be selected so as to represent their educational value. The following is our selection: *making*, to represent architecture and all manufactures; *modeling*, to represent sculpture and all mathematical concepts; *painting*, to represent all kinds of representative drawing.

These, it seems, are necessary for the harmonious development of pupils as human beings. By harmonious we do not necessarily mean complete, perfect, or finished, but well balanced—with one part or faculty well adjusted to another.

Let us give a moment's attention to the extent to which making and modeling may be utilized in school. A child, on entering school, can generally use several hundred words which represent to him certain ideas. These ideas are more or less vague, and one of the objects of primary education is to fill these words with a fuller and a richer content. Now what proportion of these can be vivified by making? We have taken a little pains to find out what ratio of the words or ideas commonly used by young children are capable of expression by being constructed in the school-room, and we believe one in twenty or twenty-five is a large proportion. Of course these words represent things that have form or shape, and they must be of simple construction. Now a principal object in making these things is to gain and to impress clearer ideas of shape and size, and the relations and adaptations these have to one another. In the process of doing this certain changes must be made in the form of the rude material worked upon, and these changes are effected by the use of tools. Skill in the use of tools may or may not have pedagogic value. That skill which is intelligent, directive, and adapts or creates means to overcome unexpected conditions, is educational. There is another kind of skill which is merely mechanical, execu-

ive, or that which comes from many repetitions. Intelligent skill in the use of one tool is a valuable product in giving power over other tools, but mere mechanical skill in the use of a tool stands in the way of skill in the use of others.

We have previously said that the best product of making is the stimulation of observation. One must have a concept of the object to be made to begin with, but as he proceeds he finds his concept altogether inadequate, and he is obliged at every step to renew his observation and thus enlarge and vivify his concept. Without a stimulant these observations would not be made, and the learner would remain satisfied with his first or inadequate conception.

His efforts to reduce his raw material to the required form also lead him to form concepts of hardness, density, brittleness, and his making thus becomes a laboratory on a small scale for learning and testing some of the physical properties of bodies.

Modeling can be more extensively introduced into elementary schools than making. It will be found practicable, we believe, to model in the school-room at least three or four times as many objects as can be constructed. Modeling also stimulates observation, but mainly in reference to form, and hence it is valuable in gaining and impressing concepts of—

(1) *Angularity*; as acute, right, obtuse angles; triangle, square, pentagon, hexagon, octagon; cube, tetrahedron, hexahedron, octahedron; prism, pyramid, etc.

(2) *Curvature*; as circle, arc, ellipse, oval; spherical, globular, spheroidal; cylindrical, conical, ovate.

For learning the physical properties of matter, modeling is not so good as making.

Drawing may introduce the student to a wider range of objects than either making or modeling, but further notice of it is not required here.

If we are right in our discussion so far, it is quite evident that making, modeling and drawing can only directly enliven and impress a small portion of all the ideas that are necessary to develop the character of a human being. But these words and ideas, being representative of the form and relations of material things, furnish a sure foundation for all the ideal conceptions necessary for our happiness and well-being. Man can build no higher than his foundation will permit; and these mathematical concepts that are impressed and made more adequate by making, modeling and drawing, lie at the very foundation of the educational structure.

Clear ideas of form and size are necessary to the study of physics, chemistry, and all branches of natural science. Without natural science, or a knowledge of his surroundings, man cannot understand what he has done, or his own history. Without knowing his own history, he cannot understand himself; he cannot know mental, moral, or æsthetic science. Without a knowledge of himself, the science of his own nature, or psychology,

he cannot know God, in whose image he has been created. Thus it happens that if we arrange all possible knowledge in the form of a spiral curve, we shall see that man must begin with form and size, and move around and upward through natural science, history and psychology up to God. If man's lower concepts are vague and misty, he is more and more in the dark as he attempts to move upward. Let such an one go back to the fountain-head, and reinforce his conceptions of form and size, and he may then renew his spiral flight, ascending higher and higher in the ever widening and retreating field of knowledge.

HISTORIC ORNAMENT AND DESIGN IN GRAMMAR AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

HENRY T. BAILEY, MASSACHUSETTS.

The subject assigned me might quite as appropriately have been "Design: Past and Future," for we are all sure that historic ornament is but the design of the past, and we are quite as sure, at times, that satisfactory design in grammar and high schools is yet to come. My experience in this matter has led me to three conclusions, of the correctness of which you may judge:

I. All who have tried to teach design in grammar and high schools are companions in misery.

II. All are anxious to obtain knowledge of the most excellent way.

III. Like other unfortunates, all seem to be placarded, "Small contributions thankfully received."

Because of these conclusions, and more especially because of the last, I have been persuaded to speak.

To insure success in teaching any subject, we must first be persuaded of its importance; second, we must have a definite "plan of attack"; third, we must keep the desired end in view from the outset.

I take it for granted that each teacher present believes this subject—historic ornament and design—to be of very great importance; believes, when Mr. Ruskin says, "Life without industry is guilt, and industry without art is brutality," that he speaks the truth. I take it for granted that when Mr. Clarke says, "This study compels the eye to close observation, and teaches it to see; thus opening before the hitherto heedless child a new world, and endowing him with the perception of natural beauty—a gift that will enrich and gladden all his after life," you are ready to say, "Yes, that is true also"; and that when Warnum adds, "Ornament is a necessity, and is an essential element in commercial prosperity," you are almost, if not quite, ready to exclaim, "Yes, yes; woe is me if I teach not design."

Being thus persuaded of the importance of this subject, we are ready for the "plan of attack."

Historic ornament should be studied in connection with design. An old Japanese proverb says, "To know the new, search the old." The plan, simply stated, then, is this:

Study Nature for material and principles.

Study historic ornament to see how these have been applied.

There has been a great outcry of late against copying; yet we still copy examples of historic ornament. Would it not prove to be more educational and of greater value to the pupil if, instead of merely copying these examples, he could be led to study them?

In all styles of ornament we find as main lines the straight horizontal, vertical, and oblique lines, radiating curves, balanced curves, the circle, and the spiral. All other forms whatsoever are combinations of these seven. The units of design are almost infinite in number; but there are but four classes of units: the geometrical, the modified geometrical, the vegetable, and the animal.

Now would it not be both interesting and profitable to compare the manner in which one nation combined these elements, with the manner in which another combined them? To see if the Egyptian perceived in a certain form what the Greek perceived in the same form? To compare the ideal beauty of the Greek with the ideal beauty of the Romans? To ascertain the favorite and most characteristic elements of different nations and to compare them?

To illustrate. Your class are studying units of design. Why not call their attention to the importance of a single unit, and how sometimes the ornament of a whole nation may be distinguished by a single unit? The presence of a lotus stamps a design as Egyptian. The honeysuckle ornament, so called, is Greek. The acanthus leaf is Roman. The lily is Byzantine. There is no mistaking a Saracenic or a Gothic unit. Let the pupils see these things, and draw one unit of each style and compare them.

Your class are studying main lines. Why not call their attention to how a single main line has been used in the past by different nations? Take the spiral for example. The Egyptian saw in the spiral only a suggestion of his beloved Nile. The Greek saw in it the perfect beauty of the volutes of the Ionic capital and the antefix. The Roman saw in it the main line for his luxuriant scroll-work. The Byzantine and the Saracen saw enough to admire in one or two spires only, and embodied that part of it in their exquisitely finished units. The artist of the Renaissance loved the spiral in part and in whole. He used it in both main lines and units, in his capitals and cornices, in his panels and hangings. And what do we think of the spiral now, and how do we use it?

Besides these points of comparison indicated there are others. What use has been made of the circle by different nations? How have they conventionalized it? How do they differ in the management of stalks and growing points? How have their ideas of refinement varied? Have they used animal form? A dozen other lines of study will suggest themselves to you if

you endeavor to make historic ornament an educational study in connection with design.

In the high school cannot historic ornament be studied in connection with architectural drawing and color? What lines of construction were used by various nations? Did others have such variety in style as we now have? How does climate affect the style of architecture? It requires but a few lines to suggest Egyptian architecture, or Greek, or Roman. A pure dome is Byzantine; a swollen or spired dome is Saracenic; and spires and steep roofs and vertical lines are Gothic.

The question is often asked, "What shall I do to teach harmony of colors in the high school? The pupils tire of coloring diagrams, and when I allow them to color a design of their own they make *such* work of it! They seem to have no taste whatever for color."

Dr. Johnson once said, "Persons can no more improve their taste by reading essays on taste, than they can improve their appetite and digestion by studying a cookery-book." And yet, with all respect for the Doctor and his opinion, could not something be done by encouraging the pupils to study historic coloring? What was the Egyptian idea of harmony? How did it compare with the Greek, the Byzantine, the Saracenic, or even the Chinese and the Indian? Do any agree with the sacred harmony of the Hebrews—the blue, and purple and scarlet with white and gold?

But now a few words concerning design itself.

The root of all past evil in design has been the idea that designs are the results of original experiments in arranging lines. "Design," says Ruskin, "is not the offspring of idle fancy, it is the studied result of accumulative observation and delightful habit." And again, "Without observation and experience, no design,—without peace and pleasurable occupation, no design." Notice, he says design is the result of observation and experience, and that it must be a pleasant occupation.

How would the old method of obtaining original designs appear in the light of these statements?

"John, I want you to make me an original design in that square." John's face betrays the state of mind into which he is suddenly thrown by this statement. His teacher might as well have asked him to fly! "Come, get at it." The boy's body begins to move, but with evident difficulty. Where is his mind, though? Is he interested in that original design his teacher requires, or is he interested in original designs against his teacher's peace and happiness?

Now if his teacher had first given him a few units and shown him how to arrange them to form a pretty design, had then proved to him that he could modify those units so as to produce a more beautiful design, he would not only go to work with a will, when asked to make an original design, but he would work understandingly, systematically, and with the greatest interest and pleasure.

In the last two or three years, some of us have discovered that pupils prefer to design with forms than with lines, and the result has been a flood of

paper-cuttings and tablet and stick-layings. Both pupils and teachers are interested; but what more do they know of the principles of design?

What we need, now, is a logical course in design. Obviously, the simplest kind of design is—

- I. Mere repetition of lines. (We find this sort of design among the savage tribes of all countries.) Next in logical order come—
- II. Designs where geometric forms are used.
- III. Modified geometric forms.
- IV. Units suggested by plant form.
- V. Ornament consisting of plant form conventionalized.
- VI. Ornament employing natural forms, as shells, horns, skulls, birds, etc.
- VII. Ornament in which the human figure is introduced.
- A logical course fitted for public-school work would be:

FOR PRIMARY AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

YR.	MATERIALS.	PRINCIPLES.	
1	Straight lines (sticks).	Repetition.	ORDER. HARMONY.
2	Straight line geometric forms.	Repetition and alternation.	
3	Straight and curved line geometric forms.	Repetition, alternation, and symmetry.	
4	Modified geometric forms.	Order and contrast.	
5	Modified forms, combined.	Strength, unity, and variety.	
6	Conventionalized leaves.	Growth, distribution.	
7	Conventionalized plant form.	Principles applied in bi-symmetric design.	REPOSE.
8	Conventionalized plant form.	Principles applied in balanced design.	
9	Geometric natural and conventional units.	Principles applied in simple applied design—as painted tile, embroidery patterns, borders, prints, etc.	

FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

YR.	OUTLINE OF SUBJECTS.	DESIGNS.
10	Botanical analysis. Review of elementary design. Applied design in which comparatively little practical knowledge of construction is necessary.	Embroidery. China decorations. Simple wood carvings. Fret-sawing, and other hand-work.
11	Botanical analysis. Methods of construction preparatory to applied design. Coloring.	Iron-work, cast and wrought. Printed dress goods, book-covers, borders, etc.
12	Study of plant and animal form. Methods of construction preparatory to applied design. Coloring.	Relief work for plastic material, wood, metal, etc. Wall-paper, cretonnes, etc.

The object of all this work in design should be to educate the taste, to teach correct principles of design and their application; *not* simply to obtain original designs.

With such a logical course as this, good educational work in design can be done in every grade, from the lowest grade of the primary to the highest grade of the high school; and what is of equal importance, *every* pupil can do the required work, and so be benefited.

The one thing for the teacher to do is to plan each lesson carefully, to see that the stairway to the desired result is perfect, all the risers equal, no treads missing.

One example will illustrate.

The pupils are in the sixth school year. Required, a radial design from a leaf.

- I. Obtain a natural leaf.
- II. Draw it carefully and accurately.
- III. Conventionalize it.
- IV. Cut from paper a number of the conventionalized forms.
- V. Arrange them about a center; notice the number required to properly cover the surface; decide upon central and inclosing form.
- VI. Draw, in order, inclosing form, radiating lines, units, center.
- VII. Line-in and finish.

The design may be constructed of colored paper units, or traced upon cloth and embroidered.

These seven steps invariably lead to the desired result.

There are seven similar steps leading to success in applied design, or at least to success in one kind of applied design; for, judging by the work usually exhibited under that name, there are two varieties, the theoretical and the practical. The latter is the kind to which I refer.

We must either make our work in this department of design more practical, or else change its name; for three-fourths of the designs now labeled "applied" could never be applied with success to anything but the waste-basket. There is but one way to make our work more practical, and that is to *study* it, to understand every possibility and every limitation of its manufacture.

For instance: before a pupil can make a practical applied design for cast-metal work, he must know something of pattern-making, moulding, casting, the strength of the material, and its appropriate treatment. If teachers and pupils knew more of these things, better designs would be produced.

The seven steps in practical applied design are:

- I. Decide upon the character of the design, and in what medium it would be best treated.
- II. Consider the material, as to strength, texture, etc.
- III. Know the entire process of manufacture.
- IV. Plan the design, considering shape, extent, variety, etc.

V. Decide upon main lines.

VI. Decide upon the clothing of the lines.

VII. Sketch the design, and finish it.

“But how many designs ought a pupil to produce in a year, if he has to know all these things?” somebody asks. I answer: The knowledge gained by the pupil, and the training he receives, in producing one practical applied design, after this fashion, will be worth more to him and to his teacher than ten of the theoretical variety. Try it and see.

Let us endeavor to put this element of utility into all our work. Drawing is not the “fancy study” thousands of people yet suppose it to be. It is the one universal language, a knowledge of one portion of which raises the pay of a mechanic from two dollars a day to five; a knowledge of another portion enables an artist to take a canvas worth two dollars and enhance its value to two thousand; while a knowledge of yet a third portion means a handsome income to the designer. Nor are these the only results. There are others whose value cannot be reckoned in money.

Let us endeavor so to teach this subject to our pupils that they will go forth into their lives with eyes that can see, with hands that can do, with minds that can think. Let us do our part toward so educating them that they shall find health, wealth and happiness in honest toil, and see in the ordinary surroundings of life—in the crystals of the rocks, in the humble grass and modest flowers, in air and sea and stars—the ineffable and inexhaustible beauties of God’s historic ornament and design.

FREE INDUSTRIAL EVENING DRAWING SCHOOLS—THEIR IMPORTANCE.

GEORGE H. BARTLETT, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

At the present time much attention is being directed toward the illiteracy prevalent in many of our large towns and cities, and various plans have been suggested by those interested in this important matter whereby this evil, arising in a great measure from the large immigration, can be met and remedied so far as minors are concerned. But what can or should be done to mitigate the evils arising from the wide-spread illiteracy existing among adults? It is true that this ominous evil exists in a very small degree among those of American birth, but ours is a great cosmopolitan country, its constituent parts embracing every nationality; and we have but few safeguards to protect us against their non-assimilation with American thought as embodied in her glorious constitution. Some may regard this adult illiteracy as of little importance, and although they may express sympathy for their

misfortune, yet they dismiss the subject without further thought. But those who are disposed to give consideration to this important matter will readily see that we cannot afford to regard it with indifference. Owing to our liberal policy concerning immigration and naturalization, many foreigners, a large proportion of whom are illiterate, after residing a few years in our country are eligible for citizenship, and actually become citizens of the United States. Their votes are just as effective as those of the most learned, and oftentimes more so in the wrong direction; for they have not that knowledge which would enable them to reason or judge for themselves, and for this reason too often they become the hirelings of politicians.

It must also be remembered that with this constant immigration comes a large amount of unskilled labor. How is this problem to be solved? What measures can be adopted to grapple with this two-fold danger? For the thoughtful must admit them to be great and growing ones. Now with these facts before us, is it not time that some safeguards should be devised, some interior educational fortifications reared, to check the advance of this common enemy upon our social and political life? We may afford to disregard the protection of our coasts against foreign invasion, owing to their wide ocean boundaries; but can we afford to do so with this ten-fold greater danger, which threatens the motive forces of all that is good and great in America? Can we allow ignorance, that unhealthy, prolific mother, to go on giving birth to every kind of vice, and not stop in our onward march to seeming prosperity to find some antidote or specific cure for her disease? Surely, inherent love of country and pride in her institutions require that we do so.

This brings me now to the consideration of the importance of establishing free evening schools in all our large towns and cities, as a means to check or modify adult illiteracy, and also to the equal importance of establishing free industrial evening drawing schools in all our manufacturing cities for the benefit of their unskilled citizens and mechanics. It is possible some may argue that these people would never enter the schools, giving as a reason, that they would be ashamed to acknowledge their ignorance, and therefore their establishment would prove a useless and expensive experiment. But from personal knowledge and experience I am persuaded such would not be the case. In the evening classes which are held in some of the schools in Boston may be found hundreds of men and women, who, under a corps of efficient teachers, are instructed in those branches of education which bear more directly upon the business in which they are engaged during the day. Or, if the pupils require it, they can have an elementary general education. During the winter months some of these schools are opened five evenings in each week, from half-past seven to half-past nine, the term lasting for a period of five months.

To those who are interested in the education of the masses I cannot conceive of anything more delightful than is presented to their view on enter-

ing these schools. They see a large body of pupils of both sexes, whose facial expression and general bearing show with what intense pleasure they are drinking at the fount of knowledge that elixir which perhaps in their earlier days they had craved for. Until schools of this kind were opened they could not find any oasis in the desert of their lives at which to slake their thirst for knowledge. These men and women, from their daily contact with business life, realize the importance of education, and readily see that without it they cannot hope to better their position. Therefore they go to these schools for a definite purpose, knowing what they want.

God speed and God bless the men who evolved the idea of opening such schools, and there are hundreds, and I may say thousands, who assemble at these educational feasts every year who would lift their voices and cry, Amen.

Then for the benefit of those artisans and mechanics who have not had the advantage of studying the subjects which specially pertain to the industrial and constructive arts, free industrial evening drawing schools are established in various parts of the city, and many schools of a like character are to be found in different parts of the State.

Few except those who have watched the working of these schools can realize what important necessities they have become.

Having had the direction of two of the largest schools of this description in Boston, from their beginning to the present time, covering a period of seventeen years, I can speak with some authority regarding them, and can testify to the wonderful benefits which the pupils have received. Hundreds of them have been helped to a higher plane in their craft by means of the instruction afforded. In fact, it may be truly said that the industrial-drawing schools have a very important influence upon the industries of the State. Many of the pupils are now employed in the designing-rooms of the mills, and many others are filling excellent positions where a knowledge of drawing is absolutely necessary. In these schools almost every nationality and every trade are represented by the pupils who attend them. There are hundreds of young men who have attended these schools who at one time were on the lowest plane in their trade, and would have remained there had it not been for the knowledge thus obtained; but to-day they are filling some of the highest and most lucrative positions.

I know of several who were working at the bench in some machine-shops a few years ago, hardly able to read a drawing, but now are the scientific draughtsmen in those very establishments; they were enabled to attain to those positions by studying at the free industrial evening drawing schools. In the East there are hundreds of cases where young men and women have been fitted to fill good positions through these schools.

Did time permit, I could give you some astonishing statistics regarding the beneficial effects upon those attending them, not only in their every-day business, but also in the moulding influence which they exercise upon their

moral character. I have in mind, now, three young men, who but a short time since, after leaving their daily work would spend their evenings in the rum-shop, or in some other evil pursuit, and even on the very evening they applied for admission one was somewhat under the influence of liquor. Nevertheless, they all ultimately became so interested in their studies that they never missed a lesson when the school was open. I can truly say, that those young men were saved morally by the influence of their studies in the school.

Now if the authorities in all the large manufacturing towns and cities in the Union could be brought to see the importance and advantage of schools of this kind, it would not be long before they deemed it expedient to establish them. It must be borne in mind, however, that the course of study in these schools should be regulated by the peculiar needs of the locality in which they are to be opened. In order that the aim may be specific, an advisory committee, consisting of representative gentlemen of those trades and industries in which a knowledge of drawing would be beneficial to the employés, should be appointed. These gentlemen should have their various districts thoroughly canvassed, in order to ascertain the nature of the principal industries of the place. The knowledge thus obtained should form the basis for determining the course of study to be adopted. By giving this matter careful consideration, the work of the schools can be made more directly effective.

Permit me to illustrate my meaning. In those districts where machine-shops and foundries, or the various industries which belong to the building trades, furnish employment to a large proportion of the people, the course of study should include all those subjects which form the scientific principles that underlie the constructive arts. Such a school should have a general prescribed course which all applicants for admission must take, and an elective course that would directly aid them in their special line of work. The following would be an excellent course under these conditions (at the same time bearing in mind that each school should be provided with the necessary models):

FIRST YEAR.—*Prescribed*: Plane geometry, orthographic projection, intersection of solids and developments.

Elective I: Machine drawing, screws, details of machinery, elevations and sections.

Elective II: Architectural drawing, isometric projection, structural details, plans and elevation of building.

SECOND YEAR.—*Prescribed*: Plane geometry, orthographic projection, intersection of solids and projections, conic sections.

Elective I: Machine drawing, screws, gears, wheels and belts, machinery.

Elective II: Architectural drawing, isometric projection, plans and elevation, framing.

And in those districts where the art industries are the more prominent, the course of study in the schools should be of the following nature:

FIRST YEAR.—Plane geometry, model-drawing and practical perspective, historic ornament, drawing of plant form, with conventionalized treatment of the same, elementary design.

SECOND YEAR.—Model-drawing, outline and light-and-shade, light-and-shade drawing from cast from historical ornaments, light-and-shade drawing from details of human figure, applied design.

While speaking on industrial-drawing schools, I am reminded of the fact, that at the present time the advisability of introducing manual training into our public schools is being agitated by many well-known educators; and some of them claim that it would give a more complete education, and in a measure solve the great problem of what many of the boys and girls shall do after they leave school. But, after a calm consideration of the whole subject, the question arises, Would it not be wise to afford the boys and girls more instruction in those subjects which have a direct bearing upon the industrial and constructive arts, before introducing it, if it is to be introduced at all? Are the schools ready for a practical innovation of this kind, and, if so, what may be reasonably expected as the outcome of such instruction? We should remember, that mere skill in the use of tools is not the alpha and omega of all those branches of industry that come under the head of the constructive arts. The alpha undoubtedly consists in at least an elementary knowledge of those subjects and principles involved therein which bear directly upon these arts, and the omega in the ability to impress the mechanically constructed object with originality of thought, both in its construction and enrichment.

The pupils who attend the evening industrial-drawing schools demonstrate the fact that mere skill in the use of tools does not meet their wants. No; it is their lack of knowledge of the subjects that exercise the mental faculties, which they feel the need of every day, and for that reason they come to these schools.

Are there not thousands of men in the country who are accustomed to the use of any and every kind of tool, and yet they often find it hard to get permanent or lucrative employment, not because there is a dearth of work, but because they have little or no knowledge of those subjects which would give them a better understanding of how to perform their work in a more acceptable manner? If we want to open up the vast field of labor to the vision of our boys and girls, let us not cloud that vision, nor darken their horizon, by leading them to suppose that a mere superficial knowledge of the use of tools will enable them to carve or plane their way in life. Let them be taught to realize that the mind and hand are partners, each having a certain work or duty to perform.

The functions of the mind are active in gathering various intellectual stores, and the most effective and productive work of the hand is that which is regulated by the instructions of the mind, instructions which are the natural outcome of a specific knowledge of the principles involved in that

something which the hand has to produce. Therefore, although a partner in this sense, the hand becomes its servant.

How often do men meet with failure in business, not because they do not understand it, but because they did not have sufficient capital when they began. And we may rely upon it, that those who place too much reliance upon mere skill of hand, without sufficient capital in knowledge, will meet with like disaster.

Is the time which the average of pupils can devote to study in the grammar schools any too long? I think not. Why, then, should that time be infringed upon for the purpose of a desultory training in the use of tools? Would it not be judicious and more consistent with the established provisions relating to our schools to lay more stress upon drawing, and give that extra time which would of necessity be required for the pupils to learn the use of tools to those subjects which bear upon the arts of construction? Now by making the study of these subjects elective, instead of compulsory, those pupils who may be desirous of learning some mechanical trade or art industry after leaving school, could turn this knowledge to practical account, and others, who were desirous of going into some commercial business after leaving could pursue their ordinary studies, without innovation or interference.

It occurs to me that some such arrangement as this would be more beneficial to all pupils.

But the objection may be raised that such instruction would require the services of a special teacher, as the ordinary teachers could not be expected to teach those abstract subjects. Granted. But is it not equally true that a special teacher would be required to instruct the pupils in the use of tools; and further, that the fitting-up of the workshop in the school would require a large outlay, and a continual one, for the purchase of material? One special teacher to instruct the pupils in the subjects which I have reference to would be sufficient in a small city. His time, with a little adjustment, could be so divided among the schools that all might have the advantage of the instruction.

Now I want it to be distinctly understood that I do not object to manual training for boys. On the contrary, I would advocate it strongly; but I object to its introduction into the grammar schools, because I feel that it would be a right study or exercise, but in the wrong place. Would it not be far better to try and induce the authorities in our different cities to supplement this instruction by establishing at least one industrial art school in conjunction with a manual-training department for day and evening study? It is in schools of this nature that the pupils would acquire that knowledge which gives true discernment and judgment to the eye, skill to the hand, and originality in design. Training in these schools would develop the highest order of skill, a skill which in reality is the joint product of mind and hand. Some of the advocates for manual training in the public schools

justly claim that, as a large number of the pupils are children of the poorer classes, it is not possible for them to spend as great an amount of time in their studies as the more favored ones can do. More than this, there are many in the schools who show little or no aptness for those studies which bear more especially upon commercial pursuits, and for this reason they claim we should furnish them with an opportunity of showing the bent of their ability and desires. A casual view of this question from this standpoint would argue that the means which they suggest would be just and equitable. But this very view of the matter opens up another question. If we allow that the taxpayers should cause their children to be so educated that they may turn their education to the mechanical industries of the country when they leave school, could not a better plan be devised, whereby the boys who show a desire in this direction could be more directly trained for the same than in the ordinary schools? For example, after they know how to read, write, spell, and cipher, and have passed satisfactory examinations in these subjects, could they not be allowed to enter schools established specially for teaching the elementary branches of the practical industries? It seems to me that it is only by some direct means of this kind that their training could be made truly effective, and I fully believe that the establishment of such schools and their support would not make a larger drain upon the public purse than the general introduction of manual training in our public schools. After all, such a plan would be ten-fold more beneficial to the pupils seeking instruction of this kind. But some may ask, How are you going to find out whether they have any aptness for the mechanical trades unless a trial be given them in the ordinary schools? This apparent difficulty could be very readily overcome by affording them opportunities of being tested in these special schools before leaving the ordinary day-schools. Should they show no aptness, let them continue with their ordinary studies. A six-months training in these special schools would be of more value to the boys than the desultory training they would receive in the ordinary schools, spread over, as it must of necessity be, a long period of time.

We can no longer assume that our youth have no ability in the direction of the industrial and mechanical arts. The introduction of drawing into the public schools has proved the contrary, and shown beyond doubt that in this particular they would compare favorably with those in Europe. The result of its introduction has demonstrated the truth of modern philosophy, that "like causes produce like effects." But, as I have already indicated, industrial-art schools must be established in every large town and city in the Union, if we ever hope to develop a high order of artistic skill which would enable the American artisan to produce works that would have an elevating and refining influence upon the tastes of the masses, and which would command appreciation in the European markets for our art industries.

In conclusion, I would call your **attention to the fact** that the countries

in Europe are more alive to the importance of these schools than we are. It is by and through the skill developed in the European fine and industrial-art schools that those countries hold their prestige in art manufactures—a prestige which they guard with a jealousy as great as that with which they guard their geographical boundaries by means of their large armies and navies.

IMPORTANCE OF A HIGH AIM IN ART EDUCATION.

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Let me ask your sympathetic attention to a plea for breadth of view and nobility of purpose in matters of art education.

We are creatures of habit. Daily routine fashions for us a harness which, though irksome at times, we learn to wear more or less patiently according to our disposition. This natural tendency serves well in matters of eating, drinking and sleeping, and is essential to a healthy performance of the bodily functions; but it becomes a bad master when it subordinates the mind. Whoever surrenders will become a prisoner between high walls that shut out the expanse of earth and sky. Thought will narrow down to the little path which the feet wear deeper day by day and the life stagnate.

Especially is this true of the teacher. The clock-like regularity of recurring duties, the monotony of recounting the old theme in much the old way at about the same season, the turning out of so many graduates in so many months, and a class-instruction which tempts one to forget the individual,—all these are elements which threaten the mental health. New thoughts must refresh and higher aims stimulate our effort, or we shall become time-servers, unworthy to be called educators, a hindrance rather than a help in national growth.

The office of the teacher is most noble. Properly understood it is an effort to make the children better than their parents, to improve the race, mentally, morally, and physically. Unless we are willing to spend and be spent in this service, giving it our highest thought and most earnest effort, it should be left for others more worthy. Above all, we must be more sincere, for the pupil reads his teacher unerringly, despite all pose and protestation. Would we warn him against debasement, stir his higher nature, reveal the beauty of an ideal, our words will fall on listless ears unless heart and character attest the truth of our sentiments.

Given, the necessity for high purpose and sincerity, how shall their stimulus be preserved through the long weeks of a school-year? After the summer vacation it is easy to do good work; tasks do not seem tasks, and the mind takes positive pleasure in the conquest of difficulties. But gradu-

ally we tire, and before another summer has come find ourselves longing to be free from the cares of teaching. Then it is necessary to have some source of inspiration, some ideal that shall so possess the thought as to reinvigorate the body.

There are moments when the mind feels free of all incumbrance; the heart expands; thought flows into thought as the rivers into the sea; life is all light, and sweetness, and possibility. Under their spell we grow noble in thought and feeling. The relations of life seem large and beautiful, the meaner part of our nature shrinks out of sight. To such moods are due the great works of art, the finest expression in music, literature, painting, and sculpture. So immortal is the spirit breathed into them that they stir us like a living voice, although the busy brain and hand that fashioned them have long been dust. Who can contemplate the *Hermes* and *Venus Milo*, or study the *Sistine frescoes*, without emotion? Who is not upborne by the music of *Beethoven*, and charmed by the reading of *Shakespeare*? These we need to keep about us, on our walls, our book-shelves, our work-table, so that consciously and unconsciously they may refresh our spirit, inform our taste, refine our sensibilities, and pour beauty into our existence. If we love such ideals, our pupils cannot fail to catch the infection.

The public school is so important a factor, so potent for good or for evil, so intimate in the formative period of existence, that we cannot well over-estimate its influence. If in youth some devoted teacher trains eye, mind and hand into harmonious action, it will prove a means of culture throughout life. But the wealth of any such training must be in exact ratio to the teacher's breadth of view. If it grasps only the momentary lesson, forgetting that its value must consist in that which preceded and that which is to follow; if it narrows down to the unthinking performance of a task, then the subject will be poor indeed. Perhaps some of us remember such a lesson—a teacher who, confessing no taste for drawing, buried herself in attractive reading—a copy-book which some took conscientious pride in imitating, albeit without instruction, but many more hastily caricatured, and then devoted the remainder of the hour to school-room pastimes which are still fresh in the memory. Fortunately that state of affairs has gone by. Drawing is no longer considered an accomplishment or special gift, but is become a means of education throughout the land. From a mere training of the senses, there is every grade of aim possible, up to that which sees in drawing a means of refinement, an ennoblement of the character, as it learns to cherish the true, the good, and the beautiful—something which opens the mind to a study of nature and a growing appreciation of its most masterly expression in art. By means of this study the teacher discovers latent aptitudes, and can save many a youth from mistake when the time comes to choose an occupation. It may be the teacher's rare fortune to share the awakening of some artistic nature—some *Sanzio*, or *Angelo*, or *Bramante*—and to equip him for his career with large thought, deep con-

victions, and noble aims. Who shall measure the responsibility, if under such conditions we fail to meet the needs of the young mind; if, being asked for bread, we give only a stone? Nor is this less true of every opening character, whether artist or artisan, statesman or scholar. In every mind the study of form, color and movement may implant new motives, and through the love of nature, a love for its Creator. Once possessed by such impulses, one dare not abuse the talent given, nor be satisfied to let it remain idle. Even when disillusionized by a growing knowledge of the world, of the sordid aims, low morals and evil intents that are rife, the memory of those early aspirations for the best will ever refresh the nobler spirit.

But in considering the moral element, let us not forget that which in the past has stimulated man's greatest efforts; which reared the Parthenon, which decorated the chapel and stanzas of the Vatican. This is the religious sentiment. Emerson says: "It is certain that worship stands in some commanding relation to the health of man and to his highest powers, so as to be in some manner the source of intellect. All the great ages have been ages of belief. When there was any extraordinary power of performance, when great national movements began, when arts appeared, when heroes existed, when poems were made, the human soul was in earnest, and had fixed its thoughts on spiritual verities." The Greek mythology now only interests the intellect; the superstition and ignorance that made Rome mistress of the world can never, let us hope, be repeated in America. But despite the changes of external expression, there always has been and always will exist a belief in the supernatural; a sense of our relation to a higher power, which alone can evoke our best endeavor.

To resume. The public school must be the chief factor in any broad-spread taste for art. We should therefore scrutinize its tendencies, striving to remove all narrowness and error, and aiming at a large treatment of the subject of art education which shall make it a source of inspiration to every mind, in whatever line of effort the future may determine. Not as mere skill of hand, nor amusement, nor trade; but a new medium through which the mind may receive and give impressions, appreciate the great works of the past, and aid in the production of a great art in the future.

The teacher must bear a most important part in this development. It is what we are, rather than what we say, which leaves a final impression on the pupil. We must cultivate our own art-nature, cherish true ideals of living and thinking ourselves, before we can impart them to others. As a safeguard against weariness and depression, we should surround ourselves with all that is best in art. Those heart-throbs which have crystallized in form, color, and song, possess a magic which makes life ever young; and in accepting this vocation as a service to mankind, our work lays hold on eternity.

Thus far we have considered the part of the teacher and the public school in the development of art instincts. This is the root of the matter, and sends its vitality up into all branches of the social system.

We are a young civilization—too young to expect all at once an art movement as rich as that of older nations. It is not strange that our English cousins should accept Bret Harte's California tales as typical of American life, or that many a Frenchman should believe that the savages still raid upon our cities in search of scalps and captives. We must not forget that the pioneer struggle with nature is still going on in large sections of this country. Such stern necessities for food, clothing and shelter must for years preclude the wealth and social leisure which encourage art.

This city of the Golden Gate has not yet seen forty years of existence. The ocean upon which it opens has only been known to civilization since the sixteenth century. The Republic of only one century looks juvenile to those who trace a kingly succession back to the time of the Romans. Although so young, so crude, so much of an experiment, she bids fair to prove true the prophetic words, "Time's noblest offspring is the last."

America, the pet child, the latest born of civilization, has her freaks, her distempers, her precocities, her charms. Her older sisters look on, at times amused, more often surprised by her wonderful vitality. Out of long experience they can furnish her many a warning. She would be blind not to see her need, and foolish to refuse such help, even though couched in terms of jealous disparagement. Fortunately she is not stubborn, but quick to apprehend and swift to put in practice, while her very youth makes her free from the prejudice which centuries have imbedded in older natures. Her passion to excel has made her grasp eagerly at the finished products of civilization. If the first clutch has only secured its externals, there is yet good reason to believe that she may eventually surpass them all under conditions which secure the largest liberty and best security to each individual.

In matters of art education, America need not be ashamed to show the progress of the last twenty years. Drawing, after a long struggle with false notions, has vindicated its right to a place in the public-school system, and is considered essential to a good education, not for its intrinsic value alone, but as an aid to the clear understanding of many another subject. Its benefits to the mind and the body, to our home-life and our industries, are no longer questioned. It sends students better prepared for the technical and art schools that are opening up in all our cities. From these, scores of students go annually to Europe, to gain a broader training. If they cherish no ideal, if their moral or physical strength is defective, if an abundance of money makes vice attractive, then there is danger that they will return spent in mind and body; or worse, ashamed to face those who knew them, they may drift about foreign cities, the fair promise of their lives blighted by a mistaken course. Those who watched over their early years may well ask themselves, where lies the blame? If, on the other hand, they are serious and high-minded, if they cultivate vigor of mind and body, theirs is an excellent opportunity to gain distinction. Enlivened by a new existence, free from the claims of society and business, in a rich art atmosphere and stimulated by contact with great masters, their progress is remarkable.

So much have they made themselves felt in the schools; and at the Paris Salon, that the question has lately been raised, whether there might not develop in the near future an American school of art; whether the novelty of our life, its peculiarities of climate and race, might not furnish the germs of a new movement. Several of the French professors, who having had Americans in their classes are able to judge of them as students as well as of their art, have lately written an opinion on this question. They dwell on their earnest, quick, vigorous spirit, but regret that they do not longer pursue their studies before attempting to create. There are those who give some faint hope of a national movement near at hand, but the weight of opinion sees in the lack of collections, traditions, and that public sentiment which only several generations of effort can supply, elements which will make it necessary for us to still follow in the footsteps of an older art. Indeed, history shows plainly that the art epochs of other races have come as the flower of complete civilization, almost the warning of decline. The Renaissance was an awakening of the entire nature. It required a widespread taste for fine literature and music, as well as the arts of design, to create such versatile and masterly men as Da Vinci and Michael Angelo. Poet, sculptor, architect, painter, military engineer, each field of knowledge enriched the others, and a long life of constant effort made them well-nigh perfect in all.

To-day the tendency is quite the reverse. Knowledge is specialized; versatility carries a suspicion of shallowness, and we have a proverb for the jack-of-all-trades. There is also a commercial spirit which chills the æsthetic side of our nature, and an existence so hemmed in by daily cares that it cannot breathe the repose necessary to a great art. It is evident to the casual observer that an intelligent love of the beautiful in art and nature is not yet dominant, and until it shall have become inherent in the national character, no important or individual expression of our life can appear. Our task, therefore, seems to be the laying of a foundation on which coming generations may raise a noble structure; a foundation so strong, so broad, so well proportioned, that it need not be repented of in after years.

If we accept this as our duty, there is no lack of suggestion to be gained from the experience of older movements; and we may avoid their mistakes, adopting only such ideas as commend themselves to the new conditions. Since the days when Francis I. laid the foundations of the Louvre and called Leonardo Cellini and Andrea del Sarto to his court, France has steadily developed a national taste for the fine arts; and in spite of repeated revolutions, her schools, museums, and art manufactories have grown, until to-day they constitute her chief wealth. Her statesmen well know that the interests of art are so closely interwoven with those of industry that the decline of one would impoverish the other. It is therefore fostered by the government. A ministry of the fine arts, allied to that of public instruction, studies every means for its advancement, and is intrusted with the expenditure of an annual budget of several million francs. In defining the claims of the fine arts upon national protection and aid, one writer says:

“Product of the highest faculties of man, of his most noble sentiments, of his aspirations towards the ideal, they constitute in turn a productive force which reacts on all society. A people may live, grow, govern even, without the fine arts; but among an artistic people the decline of the arts involves with itself a loss of riches and a revolution of morals so profound that the ruin of the fine arts would be indeed that of the country. . . . The artist of genius has doubtless only to act, but this genius even can only hatch in an artistic atmosphere, and it is this vivifying atmosphere whose pressure must be preserved at any price.”

This was written at a time when France had suddenly become aware of the surprising advance made by other nations. Her easy victory in the London Exhibition of 1851 had given a false sense of security. The Paris Exhibition of 1878 proved that nothing but a most vigorous move could insure her continued supremacy in a race where those who had begun as imitators now appeared as rivals. She has therefore elaborated a most comprehensive system that touches every kind and grade of instruction, from the primary school up to the National School of Fine Arts in Paris and the Academy at Rome. To the latter she annually sends a painter, a sculptor, an architect, an engraver, and a musician, chosen by severe and repeated tests from among the flower of her youth, there to enjoy four years of culture under conditions which recall the courts of the Farnése and the Medici.

The administration includes six bureaus, of which the first three,—Art Works, Instruction, Museums and Exhibitions,—specially interest us.

I. Under *Art Works*, come the decoration of public buildings; grants for the erection of public monuments and statues; orders and purchase of paintings, sculptures, engravings upon medals, precious stones, copper-plates, etchings, lithographs, etc.; their distribution among establishments other than museums (that being in the care of section 3); purchase of French and foreign marbles; moulds for public edifices, orders and purchase of copies for establishments other than museums; journeyings and missions, traveling purses; annual indemnities, assistance and encouragement to painters, sculptors, engravers, and their families.

II. Under *Instruction*, are the French Academy at Rome; the National School of the Fine Arts at Paris; the National Schools of the Decorative Arts in Paris and the Departments; the National School of Design for Young Women at Paris; the National Schools of the Fine Arts at Lyons, Dijon, Bourges and Algiers; the Municipal Schools of the Fine Arts and Design in the Departments; the inspection and teaching of design; the Pedagogic Museum of Instruction and Design.

III. The third bureau (*Museums and Exhibitions*) is in charge of the National Museums (Louvre, Luxembourg, Versailles and St. Germain); purchases for these museums and settlement of expenses; departmental and municipal museums; distribution of state purchases among these museums; subscription to works of art and their distribution; preservation of collec-

tions in legal trust; publication of the inventory of art riches in France; annual reunion at the Sorbonne of Fine Art Societies from the departments; publication of returns; exhibitions of works of art at Paris, in the departments and abroad.

The remaining three bureaus — *Historic Monuments, Theaters, and National Manufactories* — hardly touch us, for they are closely allied to and mainly the outcome of a monarchical government, which patronized theaters, built palaces, and established royal manufactories for their embellishment.

The first three, however, are rich in suggestion, showing how the state cares for every branch of art. With certain modifications they recommend themselves to our needs.

The history of the Blair educational bill would not lead us to expect any aid from the Government at Washington. It even seems doubtful if such action falls within its province. But in each state the board of education, or a council, could be so constituted as to include one or more art manufacturers, artists, and art amateurs, charged with the care of the art interests and their many relations to education and industry. France has such a High Council, composed of fifty two members, of which the first fourteen are *ex officio*:

The Minister; Under Secretary of State; Director of the Fine Arts (the last two are vice-presidents); prefect of the Seine; perpetual secretary of the Academy of Fine Arts; director of civil buildings; general inspector of the teaching of drawing; vice-president of the Commission on Historic Monuments; administrator of the National Museums and keeper of the Luxembourg; directors of the School of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music, and School of Decorative Art; general commissioner of Fine-Art Exhibitions; president of the Society of French Artists. The remaining thirty-eight are annually named by the Ministry: Twelve artists chosen in the Institute or outside (six painters, two sculptors, two architects, one engraver, one musician); a member of the French Academy; a member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres; two members of the Higher Council of Public Instruction; two senators; two deputies; a state-advocate; one member of each of the superior commissions of Sevres and the Gobelins; two representatives of the arts applied to industry; one inspector of the fine arts; two chosen for competence in art matters; two secretaries having deliberative voice, chosen from the central administration of fine arts.

With such a formidable array of experts, selected for their fitness, to watch over her art, is it any wonder that Paris should be the center of the modern movement, with an annual Salon of over seven thousand works? *It is high time that some of the older states in this country should make a move in this direction. There will naturally be opposition to any very liberal expenditure until the community shall have been educated up to its compensative power. It may only be possible through private endowment. But in the manufacturing states, no other line of investment can yield so rich a return.*

The National School of Fine Arts, at Paris, stands as a noble example to any state that would foster Art in its broadest relations. A university of painting, sculpture, architecture, and engraving, conducted at public expense, entered by means of a competitive examination that excludes about four out of every five, and holding out as a goal the highest honor which France can offer to a young artist—the *prix-de-Rome*, four years of travel and study, with all expenses paid, and the probability of some government commission upon his return.

If such a school existed in the capital or chief city of a state, each town could establish a scholarship for its most promising student under a certain age; while the school itself might choose by annual competition a student to be sent abroad for two or three years. In this way, the hope of a liberal education would appear to every talented and serious youth, be his surroundings never so obscure, while his efforts and success would so arouse local interest as to educate the community. One such scholarship already exists, thanks to private beneficence. The Rotch Architectural Prize sends a student abroad for two years with an annual purse of \$1,000; each in turn acting as a senior to advise the new-comer in practical questions of travel and expense.

But this should not stand alone. Scholarships for painters, sculptors and engravers are just as necessary, and if they could be related under one administration, the departure of four picked men, and the return of four to enrich the community with the fruit of their studies, would be an event of the art-year. A most important factor in any such competition is the jury. It must consist of members whose age, character and attainments will vouch for an impartial and discerning decision, and of sufficient number to insure a good quorum under all circumstances.

Such a system of encouragement cannot leap at once into perfect working order. But the initiative must be made, and will be a lasting source of pride to the state and the individuals who originate it. It will be a highway for the artisan and artist, starting from the public school and permitting the talent or genius of each individual to determine how far he will push his way, and where he will remain to work out his share in art progress. Whether he find congenial exercise in industry, in pictorial, plastic, decorative, or architectural art, or as a patron and amateur, the road is open, not only for him to travel, but as he travels to go arm-in-arm with his fellows and gain by the interchange of ideas.

Already, museums and annual exhibitions are educating the public to an intelligent love for art. Though small as compared with European collections, they form a nucleus around which gifts and purchase will constantly accumulate, and the perfection of modern casts and reproductions can atone in some degree for the absence of original masterpieces. Yet the old marble and canvas glow with a depth of color and eloquence which no copy can reproduce. In them we seem to touch the very soul of beauty, and it is to

be hoped that some of the vast wealth accumulating in America may compete with foreign bids, and enshrine among our people some such sources of inspiration.

Lastly: There would seem to be in the American temperament, the elements of an intelligent art movement. But they need to be judiciously organized and stimulated by scholarships and prizes, which shall search out the latent talent and give it means for development. Until such aid is given, although the movement has a certain dash and brilliancy, it will lack the breadth and depth indispensable to a grand art.

Nature seems to have permitted every healthy child to run the gauntlet of certain ailments, whose energy is in proportion to the robust nature which exhibits them. Having been thrown off, they prepare the way for a vigorous after-growth. If, therefore, there are mistaken tendencies in our art, if undue stress upon little things tempts us to forget greater, or if a complacent superficiality stands in the way of more sincere effort, let us believe them due to our youth in art matters, incident to rapid growth, and that, being corrected, they will leave the system in a wholesome condition for further development.

PROCEEDINGS

AND

ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION.



DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, July 18, 1888.

The fifth annual session of the Music Department of the National Educational Association was called to order at 2 o'clock P. M., by President N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, Ohio.

The first half-hour was devoted to a musical programme arranged by the local committee, S. McBurney, Secretary. This consisted of an organ prelude and solo ("Passa Collegia"), rendered by Charles H. Morse, of Minneapolis, followed by a tenor solo ("Jerusalem"), sung by Frank E. Morse, of Boston. Charles H. Morse followed with other selections on the organ.

President N. Coe Stewart then gave the opening address.

The next paper on the printed programme, "What is good Sight-Singing; and why should it be taught universally?" by L. W. Mason, of Boston, was omitted, in the absence of Mr. Mason.

The paper by S. McBurney, of San Francisco, on the "Tonic Sol-fa System," was illustrated by a class of nine girls from the San Francisco schools. Discussion followed, participated in by Vice-President Herbert Griggs, of Denver; J. W. Ruggles, of Fayette, Iowa; Charles Haywood, of New York; J. H. Elwood, of San José, California; and D. Lambert, of San Francisco.

The discussion of the topic, "Music Instruction in the Public Schools should be required by Statute Law," was opened by Thomas J. Morgan, of Providence, R. I., with a plea for the recognition of music in the regular school curriculum, and the duty of the state to teach it. In response to an inquiry by J. W. Ruggles, of Iowa, as to the extent to which vocal instruction in music is now recognized by statute law in the United States, several persons responded for their respective states. Progress was reported from Iowa, Massachusetts, and other states; and J. H. Elwood stated that vocal-music instruction is now required by law, under the new constitution, in all the public schools of the State of California. The conviction was generally expressed, that the Department should undertake and encourage such effort

as can be properly made to secure the more general recognition of vocal music as a regular branch of study in the schools.

The following communication of greeting, from the Music Teachers' National Association, in session July 3-6, in Chicago, was read by the Secretary:

The Music Teachers' National Association, through its President, sends greetings to the Music Department of the National Educational Association, assembled in San Francisco, Cal., and wishes you "God-speed" in the work of advancing the cause of vocal music in the public schools of the United States by attaching to it the importance which it deserves as a branch of universal education.

HENRY S. PERKINS, *Secretary.*

WILBUR F. HEATH, *President.*

The Department then adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 19, 1888.

The musical program provided for the first half-hour of this session was opened at 2 o'clock P.M., with a soprano solo, "O Bid Your Faithful Ariel Fly" (Linley), by Mme. T. P. Vaile, of Philadelphia, followed by "Ave Maria," with violin obligato (Gounod). Then followed violin "Caprice" (Freissig), and "Goodbye, Sweetheart," by L. N. Ritzan, and a contralto solo, "Mille Volte," from *Pia de Tolmei*, by Mrs. Eunice Westwater.

The first topic of the afternoon was "The Ethical Value of Instruction in Music, and How to Secure it," the discussion of which was opened by William E. Sheldon, of Boston, who referred to the doubt with which many leading educators, a generation ago, had viewed the wisdom of the effort to give music a place as a regular branch of study in the schools, and the change of sentiment which has now come about as the result of the experience which has followed wherever music has been made a regular part of the school programme. He referred particularly to his own experience, as schoolmaster, with music, and made this the basis of a tribute to the educational and moral value of music instruction in the schools.

The next paper, "Methods of Teaching Music in the Public Schools," by W. F. Heath, Fort Wayne, Indiana, was read by Mrs. N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, Ohio, in the absence of the author. The paper was discussed by Messrs. S. McBurney, Herbert Griggs, and J. H. Elwood.

The paper, "Church Music (with Illustrations)," by H. J. Stewart, San Francisco, and the discussion of the topic "What is the Correct Use of the Voice?" by H. S. Perkins, Chicago, were omitted, in the absence of both gentlemen.

The next paper, "Some Helpful Things I Have Learned from My Experience in Teaching Music," was by Mrs. M. E. Brand, of Madison, Wisconsin. The paper was commended by Messrs. Griggs, of Denver, Elwood, of San José, and Heywood, of New York; and was discussed by Mrs. N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland.



Moreno & Co., N. Y., 1895.

MRS. THEODORE SUTRO.

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Secretary as follows.

In accordance with the resolution passed at the meeting of the National Educa-

* See special reports and addresses at the end of the volume.

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CATALOGUE

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of San José, and Heywood, of New York; and was discussed by Mrs. N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland.

President Stewart named as a committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year, Messrs. T. H. Brand, of Wisconsin; F. E. Morse, of Massachusetts; J. Tuckerman, of Ohio; J. H. Elwood, of California; Jas. J. McCabe, of New York.

The Department then adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.—JULY 20, 1888.

The musical programme of this session was interspersed throughout the regular exercises. The principal musical features were: An organ overture and postlude in B flat, by Otto Fleisner; two vocal selections, by Miss Jeanette Wilcox, San Francisco; staccato polka, "Annie Laurie," by Miss Finch, San José; Rhapsodie Hongroise, No. 2, (Liszt,) and "Spring Dawn" (Dr. William Mason), by Mrs. Theodore Sutro, of New York.

The first paper of the afternoon, "The Use of Accent to Young People; and the Use of Time Language," was by Vice-President Herbert Griggs, of Denver, Colorado. This was followed by "How Shall We Best Promote the Teaching of Music in the Public Schools?" by J. H. Elwood, of San José, California. This paper was discussed by James J. McCabe, of Brooklyn, N. Y., who urged the importance of better preparation on the part of those intrusted with the work of teaching and supervising music instruction in the public schools.

The concluding paper of the session was given by L. W. Day, Cleveland, Ohio, on "What can School Superintendents do to Advance Proper Musical Instruction?"

This was followed by a business session. On motion of the Secretary, the President of the Department was authorized and requested to respond to the greeting from the Music Teachers' National Association, read at the first session of this Department.

The Committee on Terminology, appointed one year ago at Chicago, to confer with a similar committee appointed by the Music Teachers' National Association, appointed in July, 1887, reported through the Secretary. Its report* was unanimously adopted, and in accordance with the suggestion contained in the report, the same committee was continued for another year.

The committee appointed one year ago to consider and report on the following questions: (1) What can be done toward the unifying of the methods pursued in music instruction in the public schools? (2) What can be done to bring into closer union of feeling and method the workers in the lower and higher departments of musical instruction? reported through the Secretary as follows:

In accordance with the resolution passed at the meeting of the National Educa-

* See special reports and addresses at the end of the volume.

tional Association in Chicago, July, 1887, your committee begs leave to submit the following report:

(1) What can be done toward unifying the methods pursued in musical instruction in the public schools?

To unify the methods of musical instruction (singing) in public schools, so far as fundamental or vital principles are concerned, *preparation* for the work must be required. This special preparation should be insisted upon before the singing-teacher is engaged to superintend such an important department. An evidence of natural ability and acquired skill or fitness is important. The same pedagogic qualities and preparation should be required of the music teacher as in other departments of elementary instruction.

The unifying of methods cannot result from the experiments of the tyro or novice. If the unschooled and unprepared are employed, diversity of methods instead of unity will very naturally be the outcome.

(2) What can be done to bring into closer union of feeling and method the workers in the lower and higher departments of musical instruction?

Better preparation by the elementary teacher, as culture and ability command respect and success, because it is the most conclusive argument. Also, organizations like the Music Teachers' National Association, State and county associations and the like, will do very much to bring about a closer union of feeling and method.

H. S. PERKINS,

W. F. HEATH,

T. H. BRAND,

Committee.

This report was unanimously adopted.

The following preamble and resolution, offered by the Secretary of the Department, were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, The Department of Music Instruction of the National Educational Association recognizes the importance of promoting a general recognition of vocal-music instruction as a regular branch of study in the schools; and

Whereas, We believe that more definite information as to the extent to which music is already taught and the success which has attended its introduction into the schools thus far, will greatly contribute to this end: therefore,

Resolved, That this Department respectfully petition the Directors of the National Educational Association for an appropriation not to exceed one hundred dollars, to be expended under the direction of the officers of this Department during the next year in obtaining such data by addressing circulars of inquiry to the state and county superintendents of the respective states, and the superintendents or secretaries of school boards in the leading towns and cities of the United States; and that the answers obtained be collated and tabulated and be made the basis of a special report on the condition of music instruction throughout the United States, to be submitted to this Department at its next annual meeting.

Voted to extend the thanks of the Department to the local committee.

The committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year reported through its Chairman, T. H. Brand, of Madison, Wis., as follows: *For President*, N. Coe Stewart, Cleveland, Ohio; *for Vice-President*, Herbert Griggs, Denver, Colo.; *for Secretary*, Edgar O. Silver, Boston, Mass. This report was unanimously adopted, and these officers were declared elected.

The Department then adjourned.

EDGAR O. SILVER, *Secretary.*

PAPERS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

N. COE STEWART, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

It becomes my pleasant duty to open this, the fourth annual session of the Department of Music Education of the National Educational Association.

We have labored very hard to prepare what seemed to us the best programme possible under the circumstances. There have been many favorable comments upon subjects, speakers, and plans, as announced in the bulletin; but whether we now get the most out of these depends upon the disposition with which we hear the papers, recitals, etc.; the spirit and freedom with which you hear and participate in the discussions; the thoughts you bring to aid us; and the impulses, resolutions, and intelligent plans and purposes which you may make for subsequent work.

I beseech you, do not let this session pass by with the thought, feeling and action which imply that this is an entertainment prepared for your diversion, or a part of the "show" which you were invited to this "City at the Golden Gate" to witness. Rather regard it as an event of the greatest moment; an opportunity of receiving and giving that which will make the world better, and which will mark the school-year of 1888-9 as the best in your experience, of which it will be recorded in the great record: "A year in which they did what they could."

I need only, then, suggest, that you listen with the utmost attention, with unbiassed minds, with retentive memories; and with the eagerness of those who would know more and do better. Weigh well what you hear, and allow the good to work out in your own professional life. Be ever ready, also, to bring your best thoughts to the discussions, knowing that it is you, as well as the speakers in their places, that we came to hear. And whether we get much or little out of these meetings depends, now, upon ourselves individually, and the unselfishness with which we promptly act our several parts.

We are here, then, not for entertainment, but for work. We are to bring our best thoughts, our judgment and our experience, to try to solve some knotty problems—problems which only later years have deemed of vital importance, and yet upon the correct solution of which the full development of the race depends.

If there is a class of persons in the world who, more than any others, wish to do just right, and who wish to do great good, it is the school teachers. Yet I sometimes think that these same persons are the most difficult to move

away from notions which they have previously conceived to be correct, and from a certain manner of doing things which has been confirmed by habit. They are willing to "right about" when convinced that they are wrong, but the trouble is to convince them that they have been wrong.

Now the world has settled down to certain notions respecting music, its uses, etc., and when told that their notions have been wrong, it is exceedingly difficult to convince them that such is the case, to show them what the right is and how they can bring about this desirable condition of things, and then to set them at work to do it.

Do you believe that each pupil who comes to the primary or lowest grade in school, at five or six years of age, may in a few weeks, or at the most a few months, be able to control his voice and to imitate any tone, or several tones, which the teacher may sing? That he may have correct notions of the ear-objects which we call "tones"? that he can clearly understand that tones cannot be seen, but are objects for the ear? that lines and spaces, which he can see, stand for the tones which he cannot see? that he may have correct notions of measuring time, of the length of tones, of the notes as telling them which tone-length to sing, and, when placed upon the lines and spaces, which tone of the scale to sing, etc.? Do you believe that at the expiration of the first school-year the little fellows can tell the tones when they hear them as familiarly as they recognize the members of their family and their school, and can sing the tones as readily as they will say "John," "James," and "Mary"? Do you believe that they can also become so familiar with music reading, with time, and singing in measured time, that in connection with the tones they can, correctly and alone, sing any *new* exercise or song, within certain limits, as readily at sight as they can learn in the same time to tell the little words "cat," "dog," "an," "and," "the"? Do you believe that each little fellow can learn to use his voice as correctly to the extent required, as the finest *prima donna* that ever stepped upon the stage? Do you believe that he can learn to sing the little songs which he *should* sing, with as much correctness in phrasing, in quality of tone, distinctness of articulation, and propriety of spirit and expression, as the most expressive adult singer? Do you believe, I say, that each and every boy and girl who goes to school regularly, no matter who his parents are, and no matter what talent or lack of talent he may have inherited, can learn to do this? I tell you that he can, and that he will if he has the opportunity and the proper teaching and training.

Do you believe that each boy and girl who graduates from the high school at the age of seventeen or eighteen years may be able to sing any new music of ordinary difficulty at sight, as readily as he can read a story from a book? That he can and may use his voice correctly, and may have that training of it which will enable him to perform with ease as well as correctness all the ordinary mechanical difficulties of singing? Do you believe that each can sing with correct judgment, in proper manner and with ex-

pression, all part-songs and choral music? Again I say that it is not more certain that fire will burn, or that poison will kill, than that the average boy and girl will do this, if there be proper teaching and training, under right conditions.

Do you know that by the right use of proper texts, worded to appropriate music, all sentiments which are pure, noble and elevating may be developed in boys and girls who go to school, and that, too, without possibility of failure?

I say again, nothing truer was ever uttered than that most assuredly such may be the case!

Do you believe that in teaching and training children to know and to do these things, the best mental, moral and æsthetical development which it is possible to give them may be had? I speak the truth, I lie not, when I say "Yes; it is so. Nothing is better, nothing so good."

I need not say to you that if such a course of training as this were in process, schools would be better, and would be more easily taught, because the children would be better.

I need not say that social and religious life would be revolutionized, for your judgments say that such must be the case.

This does not mean that "pupils learn a little music in school and are fit then to be turned over to the singing-master for training," as I heard a president of the Board of Education of Chicago say in public meeting last week. But it does say that in music, as in other things, "the schools should turn the children out at graduation fitted to do the ordinary singing business of the world, without further training, unless they wish to study for a particular calling."

Is this the notion you have of music in the public schools? Is this the kind of work that is done in your school and in your city?

Do you believe that you yourself, unless beyond threescore years of age, could so learn to know music; to so sing yourself, and learn to so teach music? Again I say, *Yes!* if you go at it in the right way, with the proper spirit, with perseverance, and with the "thus saith the law" at your back, "if you cannot and do not you shall lose your situation." We do not know what we can do until we have tried intelligently and for a sufficient length of time.

Is it desirable that every boy and girl who graduates from the public schools should have a well-trained voice, with the healthy lungs, strong respiratory power, distinct articulation, well-rounded and fluent utterance, both in speech and song, which such training implies?

Does it matter that we shall have mastered one more science, and shall have become proficient in a beautiful art, and shall have all the development that correct teaching and training in these things imply?

Is it important that right sentiments shall be developed systematically, so that your child and mine shall necessarily be patriotic, affectionate, kind, good, and noble?

Are the young man's and the young woman's family and neighborhood better because they are what a right training in music will make them, and because through their ability in this art they can do well whatever comes in the line of music's function to do?

Between such a young person and one who had none of this knowledge and training, or who had but a smattering of it and of course was not what such correct training would make him, who would decide for the latter, or choose that his own child or friend should be the same?

Do you have in the town where you live, large choral societies made up of trained singers who can and do render the great master-works in musical composition with the correctness, the grandeur, the sublimity, and the spirit which they require? Do you have a community that takes pleasure in listening to and participating in such ennobling performances? Will it pay to educate a people so that they will and can so participate and enjoy? In the churches in your community do the people "sing heartily as unto the Lord," with "decency and order," or do they sing altogether by proxy, paying for the privilege, and cultivating a critical or admiring instead of a worshipful spirit? Do you have an immense choir in every church, with quartet, male, female, and grand chorus, which can, in the use of the best, noblest and sublimest musical forms, lift you out of the low condition in which care and toil have left you, and into the nobler aspirations, the loftier purposes, and the exalted conditions of feeling which, being "in the spirit on the Lord's day," is purposed to bring, so that you cannot resist joining in the noble anthem?

This may all be so. It should be so. It is your fault and mine if it is not so.

Are the gentlemen and ladies who constitute your boards of education, your school superintendents, your teachers and your preachers, wide awake, and are the people wide awake in these matters, and doing all they can to bring about such a condition of things? Teachers must be trained, the work must be laid out by a master mind and improved constantly, as progress requires. Schools and teachers cannot run alone.

Have you musical directors who appreciate, who can direct, and who instruct and train teachers until work shall be done which will end in results as above indicated? Are your normal schools so training teachers? Are private schools, colleges and seminaries having this necessary instruction and training?

Do you wonder, I say, that I affirm that we have problems to solve? These things can surely be done; in places they are being done.

How can teachers and the public be awakened to an appreciation of the benefits and great necessity of correct music teaching in the public schools and elsewhere? How can they learn to know the vastness of it, and to have adequate notions of what teaching music in this way means? How can legislators be induced to make statute laws requiring that music shall be so

taught? How can the great army of teachers be trained to do the work? How can the public be induced to demand it? All this is possible; all will be done. Meantime, it is purposed so to do.

These are among the problems to be solved. These are things which must be acted upon, which must be done, if we are entitled to boast of "making progress commensurate with the idea of a great national educational association."

To be at a place implies having gone there. Having gone there implies having made a start and having kept going until the end was reached. If in your mind, even, you have not started, begin now to go, and keep moving, notwithstanding the ups and downs, until you get there. If your school board, your superintendent, or your community, have not started, institute such procedure as shall start them, and keep them going until they, too, shall be there. The name of doing it, or a pretense of doing, without adequate objectives, purposes, and means, will not suffice.

How much can we get out of this convention that will help us? With the knowledge and help received here shall we build during the year to come, gaining new knowledge and impulse as we go along, making still greater progress from next year's convention, and so on, until in every community, and in every individual, music shall perform its functions properly, and we shall really be a better and a happier people and nation.

I adjure you to be active, zealous, and honest, that we may secure the most from the occasion and from the passing days.

THE TONIC SOL-FA SYSTEM.

S. M'BURNEY, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

At the outset I wish it to be understood that I do not appear here in any spirit of opposition to present systems of teaching. What I desire is to present to all teachers of music—especially those who have to train singers—a method which will enable them to accomplish twice as much real musical work at half the labor, will prove a source of continual interest to the pupil, and will place him on a much firmer basis of musicianship than any other I am acquainted with.

The reasons for this are not far to seek, as they lie at the foundation of Pestalozzian methods, and I shall briefly mention them.

A *good notation* is a series of symbols such that it has—

1. A sign for everything, and *only one*.
 2. Each sign should mean only one thing.
 3. The signs should indicate the *leading features* of the things noted, not *subsidiary or unimportant points*.
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4. They should be such that they need only be introduced *after* the thing represented has been taught, when the necessity for a notation arises.

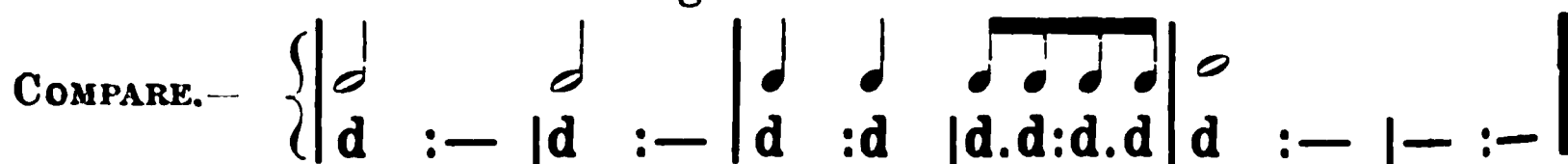
There are four "leading features" in music:

1. Tone character or "mental effect." Compare the bright, trumpet-like *dominant* (*sol* or *soh*), the upward-pressing *seventh* (*si* or *te*), and the firm, decided *tonic* (*do* or *doh*).

2. Relative pitch: the scale arrangement of tones and semi-tones. Compare the following melodies, apparently the same to the eye, but totally different to the ear from the arrangement of semi-tones, and consequently differing in "mental effect."



3. DURATION: relative length of notes.



4. ACCENT: regular recurrence of stress.



Let us see how these points are brought out in the ordinary "staff" notation.

1. Individual tone-character is not indicated in any way, so that most teachers ignore it, and some even deny its existence.

2. The position of tones and semitones is not indicated by the notation, each being the same apparent distance; but is implied under constantly

changing and confusing circumstances, so that many never grasp the idea at all.

3. The signs for time are arbitrary, and in certain cases confusing, as a quarter-note in one composition is longer than a half-note in another—or even in a different way of writing the same composition, and usage has not yet fixed a unit of time—*i. e.*, the equivalent of one beat.

4. There is no sign for accent except the bar, which only expresses one degree of force, omitting all marks for the secondary accent of four, six, nine and twelve time, and giving no assistance in differentiating three-quarters and six-eighths, which are written apparently the same, and are constantly misunderstood. So little is the bar understood, that in the American Lutheran Hymnal it is entirely omitted, except to show the end of a metrical line.

But while ignoring the four special features of music, the staff shows one subsidiary feature very prominently, *viz.*, *approximate* absolute pitch, which, however necessary to an instrumentalist, is not wanted by the singer except as a matter of convenience—and which it is frequently advisable to disregard—in transposing from one voice to another, or under varying circumstances.

So strongly are those defects felt, that there are innumerable devices for enabling beginners to master the realities of music without the ordinary notation, although, as a rule, all cling to the staff, and profess to teach by it.

One popular method uses *four symbols* to indicate the simple scale of nature:

- (a.) The staff symbols...(lines and spaces).
- (b.) The letters.....c, d, e, f, etc.
- (c.) Numerals.....1, 2, 3, 4, etc.
- (d.) Sol-fa syllables.....do, re, mi, fa, etc.

This can scarcely be said to fulfill the requirements of a perfect notation, nor does it appeal to educators as a simple teaching instrument.

Believing it to be utterly hopeless to simplify the staff so as to make it easily mastered by children, the Tonic Sol-fa-ists (like the Paris-Chev -Galin School) have rejected it entirely in the elementary stages. Having seized the main principles of music, a philosophical notation was made to fit the facts, with the double result, that it was found not only a notation that children could easily master, but one that was capable of expressing and rendering intelligible the most abstruse and advanced stages of music—*e. g.*, practical vocal and instrumental rendering of the classics, harmony analysis, composition, acoustics, etc.—while it proved the shortest route to a thorough mastery of the staff, once it was itself mastered.

These facts are proved by the testimony of thousands of teachers in almost every region of the globe—not excluding America—by the prizes taken in competitive examinations by Tonic Sol-fa students who hold staff certificates, and who have passed such examinations as the British Society

of Arts, Mus. Bac. Oxford and Cambridge, Trinity College, London, etc.; by the improved congregational singing in hundreds of churches, and by the constant sight-singing tests in public, when frequently 4,000 or 5,000 will render a part-song or anthem never seen before, as the late Sir Geo. MacFarren acknowledged, "*in a manner to fulfill the highest requirements of the severest judges.*"

I could quote the eulogistic statements of Dr. Wm. Mason, Eugene Thayer, Clarence Eddy, W. S. Mathews, Reinhold Herman, and other leading American musicians, to show that they advocate Tonic Sol-fa from both a practical and theoretical point of view, but I think the time at command may be better employed in showing what has actually been accomplished in four months by a class not taught by me but by the grade teachers—neither pupils nor teachers knowing anything of Tonic Sol-fa five months ago. The class will be placed at considerable disadvantage, as they have not met together during the four weeks of vacation, and only one of the first grade—those I depended on—being present. I may therefore state that in presence of Mr. Stewart, Mus. Bac., Chairman of the local Committee on Music, they performed the following tests before school closed, at sight:

1. Songs in two parts, including accidentals, change of key, and modulation to the relative minor with sharp sixth and seventh.
2. Two-part modulator voluntaries with dominant, subdominant and minor modulations.
3. Difficult modulations of two, three and four removes; *e. g.*, D, A, B, B minor, G, F, A, D minor, D major.

I may briefly indicate our method of teaching, which any teacher may put in practice by following the directions in our text-books, (such as Curwen's *Teacher's Companion*, or Seward's *Tonic Sol-fa Reader*—Bigelow & Main, or Waldteufel, 737 Market street.)

We first teach the notes of the Tonic chord, *doh, me, soh*, by means of a diagram called a modulator, until they are thoroughly mastered, not only by being seen when written or pointed to, but by being recognized when heard from the teacher singing. The simpler elements of rythm are also introduced, with suitable marks to indicate accent and relative length.

The Dominant chord, *soh, te, ray*, is then added, with more difficult rythm, and the Subdominant *fah, lah, doh* follows, completing the scale, and forming the third step.

The pupils are then introduced to transition (modulation), to Dominant and Subdominant by means of a three-column modulator, which clearly represents the changes necessary in passing from one key to another. This, with the minor mode, which is developed in a very ingenious manner suggested by Daniel Batchellor, now of Philadelphia, is all that is practically necessary in ordinary school-work; but the mastery of distant modulations, as I hope to prove, can be easily obtained where there is any musical feeling, and thus the way is opened to the possibility of producing a whole na-

ready and able to take part in rendering the greatest choral works of great masters.

This is not a mere fancy of the brain, for already in Dundee, Scotland, school children for years past have annually rendered Handel's "Messiah" and Mendelssohn's "Elijah" with accuracy and effect.

The state of choral music in America is admitted on all hands to be deplorable, as it was in Scotland thirty years ago, and it is in the hope of being able to arouse the states of the Pacific Slope to the possibility of emulating the singers of the Welsh hamlets, where young and old, rich and poor, participate in rendering our grandest choruses, that I have delayed my homeward journey many months to be present with you this day, and lay before you the advantages of this God-given system, which I believe is bound to revolutionize the singing of your nation in the school, the home, and the congregation.

[B.—As music-teaching in America is almost entirely on the "movable" system the main point in which Tonic Sol-fa claims superiority is that by *any* system the pupil must perform *two* processes; he must first find out which note of the scale do, re, me, etc., is represented by, and then sing it. In Tonic Sol-fa the note is at once presented, and he has only to sing it. The culty of finding out the note wanted increases in proportion as modulations are multiplied by accidentals, as they are in all classical choruses.

AIDS IN ELEMENTARY MUSIC TEACHING.

W. F. HEATH, FORT WAYNE, INDIANA.

So much has been written and said on the subject of music in the public schools, and elementary instruction in music, that it would seem that nothing new can be said. To us teachers it is well known, however, that things must be said and resaid, fitted and refitted, before they become well established as facts in the possession of our pupils. This is in part true of those who would discuss the various methods and principles underlying this instruction.

I believe it is now acknowledged by the members of this Association that the subject of greater importance comes up for discussion at our annual meetings than that of elementary musical instruction. Our whole musical life depends largely upon the building of this foundation. How and why this instruction is so important seems to be well understood and acknowledged. But in regard to the manner of giving this instruction there seems to be a diversity of opinion. I am liberal enough to admit the possibility of more than one method; at the same time, I believe certain well-defined principles must underlie all successful work.

The first of these principles is that of tone-pitch; second, but greater, is tone-relationship.

We may talk notation, invent notation, and teach notation until doomsday, and ninety-five per cent. of our time and labor is lost if a perfectly-developed knowledge of and ability to give tone-pitch, and, I repeat, the greatest of all, tone-relationship, has not become part and parcel of the pupil's mental equipment.

This is the key to the apparent success of our Tonic Sol-fa friends, and not the five per cent. of their method—their notation—though this serves their purpose well as an advertisement. To the student of this subject it is apparent that the stress laid by them upon the notation—the five per cent. of their method—is owing to the fact that there is nothing new to this country in the ninety-five per cent.

The Tonic Sol-fa system originated in England, under the Wilhelm Hullah system, which had a false method (if it can be said to have had any) for the development of tone-pitch. The Christian Heinrich Hohman method, translated and largely used in this country—a “fixed do” method with a “movable do” attachment—belongs to the same list. Neither of these methods is successful, because both fail to develop tone-pitch and tone-relationship in any analytical manner. There is in this country a system called the “movable do” system, and elaborated by Dr. Lowell Mason, which contains the ninety-five per cent. that is in the possession of our Tonic Sol-fa friends. This method recognizes the importance of developing in the pupil a perfect knowledge of tone-pitch and tone-relationship, and holds that the notation is a secondary matter—the five per cent.

Now, if our Tonic Sol-fa friends, or our “no do” friends, can teach tone-pitch and tone-relationship better than those of us who believe in what—for want of a better name—is called the “movable do” system, they will surely outstrip us in the race. With a better and universal notation on our side, if we are as good teachers as they, we can secure just as good, and, in the end, better results. A steam engine may be very perfect in all its parts, but it will not run without steam. A system of instruction may be ever so perfect, but it cannot succeed without a teacher. Teachers fitted by nature and education are what we want.

In mathematics the characters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0, +, —, ×, are what the staff, notes, rests, bars, clefs, etc., are to music. Compared with the values they represent, the characters are of little importance. A knowledge of the former must precede the latter; and whoever tries to put a sign before its fact has the cart before the horse. In teaching, our Tonic Sol-fa friends have the horse before the cart, where he belongs. But in argument, to me, they seem persistently to put the cart before the horse, notation before that which it expresses. Take the modulator away from the Tonic Sol-fa system and it would be like a honeycomb without the honey. The modulator is a most excellent means for the development of tone-pitch, but it falls short in

not providing for, or in not emphasizing, tone-relationship—the more difficult principle. My idea is that the modulator should go one step farther, and present tone-relationship.

To illustrate. Suppose the last tone sung to be *mi* and the next tone to be *si*, and that the singer fails to give the *si*. Is it for lack of a knowledge of the tone *si*, or of the tone-relationship *mi-si*? May it not be possible that the latter rather than the former is the case? To prove this we have only to lead the singer from the tone *mi* to the tone *si* through a simpler series of known tone-relationships, when the tone *si* is as easily given as the tone *mi*.

It is just as important, and even more so, that intervals, as well as the tones forming the intervals, should form definite concepts in the mind of the pupil. If we are to use the letters *m i* and *s i*, or *m e* and *t e*, as aids, through the sense of sight, in developing these tone concepts in the mind of the pupil, it is even more important to use a line, or some other sign, to aid the pupil in acquiring a concept of the relation or interval between these two or any other two tones. These letters and lines are legitimate and valuable aids in teaching, and are not used exclusively by our Tonic Sol-fa friends, and I do not think they were the first to use them. The development of this tone concept must precede notation; and I repeat that he who puts notation before this knowledge must fail in securing good results. As words must be learned independently of their arrangement in sentences, so must tones be learned independently of their combination into melody or harmony; and here is where the Wilhelm Hullah and Christian Heinrich Hohman methods fail. I am aware of the argument against this idea, *i. e.*, that a child's musical education must begin with a development of a sense of melody, rather than a development of a sense of tone—from the standpoint of rote-singing as opposed to an analytical development from the tone system. This would find a parallel in teaching a child to talk by teaching a whole sentence at a time, independently of its division into words and letters. I am aware of the importance of developing in the child a sense of melody and rhythm; but I hold that this can be better done later in the child's experience, and following the acquirement of a knowledge of the elements of tone-relation, which knowledge will serve as a basis for a more intellectual development of the sense of rhythm and melody. This brings us to an appreciation of melodic form, with a musical perception, calling into action any creative power the child may have, just as in language its knowledge of words and the formation of sentences stimulates to composition. The parallel, however, is not quite exact, as there are great differences between music and language. If the Hullah and Hohman teachers could divide their melody into tones, intervals, and lengths of tones, and impress them upon the mind of the child as purely independent facts, so that in the course of time he could think of them, arrange and re-arrange them at will as readily as he could words and the sounds of words, I should accept the system as a good one. But here is where the difference comes in, for at this

point the natures of the two subjects diverge, and what is possible with the one is impossible with the other. Primarily, language is objective and definite, while music is not. The words first learned by a child are the names of objects. It is only later that these words, by their relationship to other words, are formed into sentences. By and because of their association with the object they represent, they are reproduced. In the sentence, "Bring me the book," the child first knows the word book because of its association with the object; similarly the word me is associated with the speaker, and the word bring is associated with the action. There is in the mind a definite concept of an independent idea for each word. The relation to each other in the sentence is an afterthought. In the group of tones forming a melody no idea is conveyed that can be separated from their relationship of pitch and length. The concept is not strengthened by any indissoluble association with any object other than the tone itself, as is the case with words. The latter are so associated with the experiences of life that they become indelibly impressed upon the mind as individual entities, independent of all relation to each other, while when we talk of tones there is no such double significance and strengthening association. If in music the tones and tone-relations are so taught that they become fixed concepts in the mind of the pupil, their notation is quickly learned. There will be no need of such aids as a wide line or a wide space to represent "do," the writing of numerals or syllables below the notes, or using differently-shaped note-heads to indicate the tones of the scale. In fact, these aids become hindrances. I see no reason for giving two or three sets of names to the tones of the scale. It is certainly confusing to the mind of the child, and I can see nothing to be gained, as the child will think but one set of names.

Our Tonic Sol-fa friends lay great stress upon the simplicity of their notation in dispensing with the study of different scale positions. My experience enables me to say that this is a small gain, if, all things considered, it can be called a gain. For, if pitch and pitch-relationship have been thoroughly mastered, it is by no means a difficult task for children to learn these different positions. It will constitute not more than three or, at most, five per cent. of the work. Besides, those who carefully examine the Tonic Sol-fa notation on this point will see that this difficulty is not fully removed; for there remain the upper and lower octave side-lines, which are more or less confusing in change of scale position in pitch, especially in cases of modulation. So the relative gain over the staff, if in fact there is any gain, is not more than one per cent. The indication of modulation by the exchange of syllable is as easily made with the staff as with the Tonic Sol-fa; and that these modulations are not indicated is purely the fault of authors and not of the notation. This idea was not originated by the Tonic Sol-fa-ists, but, to their credit, they make more and better use of it. In fact, they make it an essential part of their system, as all staff-notation writers ought to do. I cannot agree with those who do not believe in the use of the syllable names

do, re, mi, etc., as aids in forming a true conception and individualization of the tones and intervals of the scale. The argument that these names are hindrances is as absurd, to my mind, as it would be to argue that the names of the hours of the day are hindrances in computing time. A child, to tell the time of day from the clock, must know the hour-marks from the minute-marks and the hour-hand from the minute-hand. To argue that because the child has learned the names of the tones of the scale he must say them before he can apply words to the scale-tones, is as unreasonable as it would be to say that before the child can tell the time of day from the clock he must say: "This is the hour-mark, this is the minute-mark, this is the hour-hand pointing to the hour-mark two, this is the minute-hand pointing to the fifteenth minute-mark, hence it is fifteen minutes past two." Such a lengthy process of reasoning is no more necessary in the one case than in the other, provided the facts in both cases are equally well established. Good music teaching means that these facts should be as well established in the one case as in the other. When these tone concepts have become thoroughly established there will be no more difficulty in dispensing with the syllable names and substituting words in their places than there is difficulty in dispensing with the names of the several facts necessary to tell the time of day from the clock. The end is only reached when the concept is perfectly established independent of name or notation. Too many of our teachers are like Moses, who undertook to lead the children of Israel to the promised land. They stop before they get far enough to even look over into the promised land, and leave the children to wander in the wilderness of musical ignorance to find the promised land of musical intelligence as best they can.

By no means second in importance, but far less difficult to develop, are the mathematical concepts of tone-length. These concepts, like those of tone-pitch, must precede their notation. There are two methods commonly used as aids to develop in the mind of the pupil the idea of tone-length, viz., the physical method—or beating time with the down, left, right, up motions of the hand, and the more modern *tiffe-taffe-ta* method. Another, and I believe a better method, is used to some extent. This consists in directing the child's attention to a succession of sounds of equal length, until that length can be readily recognized by the ear solely, unassisted and unconfused by any mis-called help in the way of beating, or by the use of a time-language. Taking this concept of tone-length as a unit of measurement, all other tone-lengths can readily be estimated from it by mentally comparing the length of other sounds with this unit of tone-length.

At times I have been much interested in listening to the arguments of those who believe in the old gray-haired physical method, *i. e.*, that the pupil must make the motions from the wrist, instead of from the elbow, and that the index finger must be extended, with the other fingers closed. I was brought up on the bottle of this method, but by careful study and tested

experiments I have finally been weaned. Thus, this aid has proved to me a hindrance. The tiffe-taffe-ta method has been invented as a substitute, but so far I have refused the bottle. It is a multiplicity of names that leads the minds and ears of the pupils away from the pure, simple mathematical notion of tone-length rather than to it, and is thus a hindrance instead of a help. I have found by experience that pupils can be as readily taught to think of and recognize with the ear the lengths and relative lengths of tones as they can recognize with the eye the measurement of an inch from two inches, or any given length from twice that length, etc.

In the notation of tone-length, it seems to me that the system of different note-forms is far better than the Tonic Sol-fa method of indicating relative lengths of tones by the relative length of space. In the staff notation, the position of the note indicates the tone-pitch, and the form of the same character represents the tone-length; while, in the Tonic Sol-fa notation, the initial letter of the syllable represents the pitch and the length of the space in which the letter is placed indicates the length. The important test of superiority between the two methods is a comparison to decide which is the more pictorial and suggestive to the eye. The same facts—understood independently of the notation—are to be represented in each case. If we would be successful in teaching, we must be direct and simple. This is the short road to effective musical instruction. The more directly we can present to the pupil the simple facts of music, and the fewer and simpler aids that will serve our purpose, the better.

I do not believe in the use of instrumental aids in teaching, other than the pitch-pipe. Every effort should be made to cause each pupil in a class to acquire a knowledge of the elements of music by his own mental powers in the same manner that he is led to acquire an independence of thought and ability to master the rudiments of any other school study. Clearly there is a legitimate as well as an illegitimate use of the child's power of imitation.

While not strictly within the province of this paper, I feel that so important a matter as the child's voice should not be passed by. A good technical knowledge is by no means all that should be worked for. That the child sings the right tone is not all. The tone must be soft, pure and musical, and the vibration of the vocal chords free. I must enter my solemn protest against loud singing. To a great extent soft singing prevents injury to the child's voice, and is an effective aid in the production of pure, musical tone. But the securing of soft tones should not alone be the object of the teacher's care. There is no better time than childhood for acquiring the habits of clear enunciation, proper vowel formation, and, in fact, all the elements of good singing. I must also here record my protest against the idea that these habits of good singing can best be formed through the agency of rote-songs. Intelligence is the rock on which must be built all that is permanent in musical instruction; and about rote-singing there is little or no intelli-

gence and less permanent good. I have no faith in any permanent results to be obtained by forming classes of children for the purpose of learning a few songs by rote, and then bringing them before an unsuspecting public for show. Such a show is a very empty shell. I lose all respect for the judgment of musical dignitaries who will countenance this outward show with no examination into or consideration of the musical intelligence of the pupil. Only by and through a careful training of this intelligence can legitimate results be obtained. The teacher who does nothing but teach children "to read notes" does but half his duty; and he who does nothing but teach pupils a few rote-songs—no matter how well done his work may be, or who wrote the songs—does far less than half his duty. Symmetry is a law of nature that must not be overlooked in the child's education—no more in music than in any other branch of study.

SOME HELPFUL THINGS I HAVE LEARNED FROM MY EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING MUSIC.

MRS. M. E. BRAND, MADISON, WISCONSIN.

I succeeded my husband in superintending music teaching in the public schools of the city of Madison, Wisconsin, seven years ago. Since then I have passed many sleepless nights and thoughtful days in thinking and planning what to do to inspire my pupils with a desire to learn, and to simplify my instructions.

In the summer of 1884 an announcement was made at the meeting of the National Educational Association at Madison, that a musical department would be organized, and that Dr. Mason, Prof. Holt, N. Coe Stewart, Blackman, H. S. Perkins and many other notables would be present. My heart bounded with delight at the prospects presented.

A special subject was brought up at the opening of the session—fixed *do*, or movable *do*; and at the end of the week it was all *dough*, and no bread for me to feed upon. I still hoped that the next session at Saratoga would be more profitable; it only resulted in a sort of hippodrome contest of Tonic Sol-fa or no Tonic Sol-fa. And still I hoped for the next at Topeka. Nothing was done.

The Chicago convention of 1887 was only a repetition of the former work, with the exception that it was specially controlled by Professors Tomlins and Root in advertising their methods of voice-building.

Now "hope deferred maketh the heart sick," and I feel myself fast approaching that condition; and I want to enter a protest against this plan of campaign, and humbly beg that we may have a sort of experience, or class-

meeting. If the patent-matter contained in the heads of music-book makers is too sacred to be utilized in advance for instructing poor ignorant mortals like myself, then protective tariff must be applied to them. In the political parlance of the day, "turn the rascals out;" and then let us compare notes and confer with each other, and we shall certainly realize some benefits, even though it be in expressions of sympathy.

The greatest difficulty existing in the different systems thrown upon the market for general use in teaching singing is, the lack of systematic progression. A few pages are devoted to the simple rudiments, and then a dash is made into far-fetched theories and intricacies only fit for advanced students. The principal aim seems to be to ignore simplicity for fear of the derision of a competitor. Therefore, the task of simplifying devolves upon the teachers in charge, and as all teachers in public schools are not experts in music, they are obliged to look to the superintendent of music for special assistance.

This excessive wear imposed upon the teachers, in addition to the regular branches required to be taught in the schools, has a tendency to dishearten and discourage them, and they naturally join the dissenters and vote the teaching of music in the public schools a bore.

As a prelude to my experience in teaching singing, I would say that I am always governed by a mother's impulses and intuitions in conducting the exercises. Therefore I devise plans to suit the occasion. All days in the season are not exactly alike; neither is every child always in the same condition to receive instruction. Therefore a good supply of tact is, I find, a very useful thing to keep on hand for emergencies. The following are a few of the plans which I have adopted, and which I present to you as helpful things I have learned from my experience in teaching music.

I shall request you to bear in mind that music is not accepted in the public schools where I am teaching, as a regular study. I am therefore obliged to resort to all imaginable devices in order to make the instructions interesting, and to inspire a hope that at some time the school board will see this in a different light, and adopt music as one of the regular branches in the curriculum of study.

So my experience merely amounts to experiments, and I offer them, not as a systematic course of training, but a means to suit the occasion. As it is impossible to consider at any length the general routine of work necessary for successful teaching, we shall therefore specially dwell upon some of the most prominent points, and simply hint at others by way of connecting links.

In the first primary room I find it necessary to vary the programme, in order to avoid monotony. We introduce the rote-songs simply for recreation. We teach songs suitable for those young children, alternating with the singing of the scales in a soft tone, and always singing for them the songs and exercises, but not with them. Children are good at imitating, and if the

ear be trained to subdued tones they very soon catch the idea of singing softly. Sometimes I request them to close the lips and hum the tune. I advocate singing softly in order to avoid straining or injuring the vocal organs, and to establish a good foundation for pure tone quality. So the first year I devote to the formation of tones.

The second primary year I take up the instructions of the staff and notation. I frequently demonstrate with imaginary pictures to show the time-value of the notes, which I shall explain further on. I first impress the position of the staff, and as we have nothing but hand and blackboard to work with, I use the former in order to save time and labor. I think music charts very essential, as I consider them of more assistance in concentrating the attention of the pupils in the first lessons than books.

We insist throughout all our instructions on quality and not quantity of tone, for the proper use of the voice should be considered above all else.

We spend a few moments in singing the scales and in skipping, by way of tuning up; then we take up song-singing, always taking into consideration the story or sentiment contained in each song, thus making a practical application of the quality of tone. If a bird-song is to be sung, we call attention to the necessity of singing softly in order not to frighten the imaginary bird. I then encourage the children to use their imagination, and to modulate their voices so as to consistently comply with the song. For I have heard persons called artists sing "'Tis but a Little Faded Flower" in tones best suited to an outraged cyclone. Children naturally take up the idea and become interested in the details of the selections.

The question may arise here, What do you do with irregular or unmusical voices? I answer, that I never compel John or Jane to stop singing on account of a discordant voice, nor do I allow the day teacher to discourage them from singing, but I always encourage them to try, no matter how stubborn the case may be. I however impress upon the pupils' mind the importance of listening to others' singing, and also to try to sing with them in a tone sufficiently subdued to hear his neighbor's voice. Above all things, I avoid as much as possible making the fault conspicuous. Teachers in general need a good supply of that open sesame to all difficulties—*encouragement*. They must not treat their children as though they were mere machines set up to be run by animal force. If I have time (and I generally take it) I ascertain where John or Jane are at fault. The discord generally arises from peculiarities existing in the pitch of the voice, and not in the ear, as some imagine. Perhaps Jane can sing better in the alto register and John in the soprano, or *vice versa*.

For the purpose of ascertaining, I exercise them privately on special tones until I find their natural pitch, then place them where they belong. In especially stubborn cases, and where the pupil is particularly anxious, I require them to whistle softly, then to keep the mouth in the same shape and try to sing *do* without any special effort.

To inspire confidence, I then show them how my mouth is shaped in saying *way*, spreading the corners of the mouth as in laughing, and require them to listen while I make the second degree, using the word *way* instead of *ray*. I use the force of *w* instead of *r*, as it is much easier to protect the vowel *a* with the force coming from the labial muscles than in using the tongue. When that tone is correctly made, I alternate the first and second degrees. Then the teeth are closed firmly and an effort made to produce the sound through the nose and say *me*, using the third degree. When these three degrees are learned, the upper teeth are firmly placed on the outer edge of the lower lip, and *f* aspirated, and then the mouth suddenly opened while singing *ah*, producing *fa*, the fourth degree.

We now have the lower half of the scale established, and when this is learned the upper half is conducted in a similar manner, and the mouth shaped exactly in the same order while producing the tones, *sol*, *la*, *si*, *do*.

I think I can safely say that in my experience of seven years I have not found a hopeless case in this particular in our public schools. I do find indifference or carelessness—a sort of “don’t care”—manifested among the older pupils, but very seldom do I find it in the primary departments.

I think it a great mistake to discourage children at any age from singing. The infant cuddled in its mother’s arms learns to know her voice above all others. From her it learns its first lullaby-song and its first prayer, and those infant recollections remain with us as long as life exists. Therefore encourage the children to sing, for they all can learn, but not all alike.

In my second primary department we continue with about the same routine of work, introducing the song reader and teaching the reading of music from books, taking up simple forms of modulation.

In teaching time I sometimes use the metronome, but oftener demonstrate with my tuning-fork, tapping the time on the desk, and endeavor to impress upon their minds the necessity of thinking in time, without using the old style of beating down, left, right, up. Occasionally I allow them to tap with the index finger upon the book, giving the accented part of the measure or first beat a little stronger tap. Some children learn special branches more readily than others, and are particularly dull in other studies; and as a majority can be easily reached by story-telling or word-pictures, I often resort to it in impressing any special idea. For instance, in teaching the time-value of notes I compare notes to trains of cars. A whole note is a slow train, running one mile in four minutes. I tap the minutes while the children supply the train. A half-note is a train running a mile in two minutes, a quarter-note group, one mile per minute, eighth-notes, two miles per minute, etc.

I gradually introduce the various rests until all are learned. Sometimes I require the class to stop and whisper *rest*, but more frequently to stop and nod their heads, by way of recognition as to an acquaintance, not allowing them to pass by any rest without first bowing or speaking to it. I require

them to learn the names of the rests, and when by chance anyone forgets the name when called upon to give it, we formally introduce Miss Quarter, Half, or Eighth-rest, as the case may be, to Miss Jones or Brown.

Sometimes I demonstrate notes with an orange or an apple, the whole orange standing for a whole note. I then make the character of the whole note on the blackboard. Then I cut the orange into halves, and at the same time write down half-notes. Then I call attention to the time it will take to eat half an orange. Allowing two minutes, representing two beats, to eat it in, it will take four minutes, or four beats, to eat a whole orange.

The time-names are also of great service in impressing correct accentuation of time, and should be used in this connection.

This plan of teaching may seem to be extremely simple and foolish to some. But I endeavor to teach my own children in such a manner as to make them understand, and I always consider the most simple way the best.

My motto is, Simplicity in all things; and I think all teachers who have the interest of their schools at heart, and are not overburdened with astronomical calculations on the sun's going down, or the specially interesting periods of vacation, together with the money considerations, will agree with me.

I never for a moment forget that I was once a child, and how big the big words did sound to me; therefore, I try to avoid them. I try to teach exercises so as to benefit the entire class, and I avoid catering to specially precocious talent often brought out as a sort of catch-penny, as a surprise for visitors, and more particularly for the school-board.

The songs in the second primary they learn by note, using the syllables. I find that they enjoy them better if they have this work to do, and they also feel as though they had accomplished something. The second year in the second primary department we take up exercises in transposition to and including four sharps and four flats, and we do good, solid work. Of course by this time we have become very familiar with the natural scale, letters as well as syllables, and a great many of this class I find have the pitch established so that they can generally get at the correct pitch of any key, for in our schools we do not use any musical instrument, giving the key with the tuning-fork.

For our first and second grammar departments, our exercises are a continuation of the previous work. We of course advance to a higher-class reader, consequently we have harder work to do. We take up two and three-part singing, but never introduce four-part singing for general exercises. Still keeping up modulation and independent singing, we are compelled to be independent, for, as I have before stated, we are not supplied with musical instruments to assist us, except in one room, where the instrument is used in playing accompaniments after the songs have been learned by note.

I find *that when the primary departments are conducted as they should*

be, there is no particular difficulty realized in instructing the grammar schools. Of course there are a few more precocious than the rest, who are passing through a transition such as is described by our old English saying. "Hobble-de-hoy, neither man, nor a boy." But they are very few. There are also a few lazy or listless ones who feel above learning, and are always ready and willing to hang on to their neighbors; but we generally bring them to a realizing sense of their true condition when they come up for examination, for instead of written, I have adopted the plan of oral examinations, and at the same time require individual voice-tests.

As a general thing I find that home influence has a great deal to do with improvement of pupils, particularly in singing. For there are parents who have no music in their souls. They are often found over-indulgent, and consider it time thrown away when their children are required to do anything distasteful to their inclinations, especially singing, which they regard as foolish and of no importance whatever. They encourage them to go into ecstasies over the harsh squawking of a parrot, or the tricks of a poodle-dog. But as to listening to the sweet tones of a canary, lark, or linnet pouring forth its song of praise to the Father who gave it this gift, why, they would rather their child should indulge in the pleasant pastime of whittling or writing *billet doux*, or, perchance, in that of surprising the teacher in charge with a putty-ball or paper wad. Such pupils do exist, for I find such an imprint of home rule as I have just described in a large number of our classes.

A great deal of the success in teaching singing depends upon the day-teacher. Not that she should be an expert in singing, for in several instances I have known excellent work done by teachers who could not sing a note. They have utilized special pupils to do the singing, while they impart the principles or theoretic part. If the day-teacher manifests carelessness, the school soon catches the contagion. The pupils sniff the air of indifference, and conduct themselves accordingly.

These are some of the things that I have learned. I have not learned them in listless vaporings, but in the furnace-heat of thought and effort, and in the intensity of a growing desire to give music a real place in the economy of the very being of the child, where it may make both metre and rhythm in its mental and moral unfolding. If in this I have had a success that will reveal itself in blossoms on the tree of unfolding lives, I shall be glad. If I have failed, it will be with a look toward the isles of summer's opening sea.

I feel that I have not failed.

THE USE OF ACCENT TO YOUNG PEOPLE; AND THE USE OF TIME-LANGUAGE.

HERBERT GRIGGS, DENVER, COLORADO.

Almost all of the time spent in teaching accent to young children is so much time wasted. I maintain that a child that can sing either an exercise or song (if it be properly composed) in the correct tempo, will naturally sing it with correct accent. He will feel it instinctively. Not only will he accent it properly, but it would take a great effort on the part of the instructor to have him accent it incorrectly. In some styles of music the accent is so slight as to hardly exist, except in theory, as, for instance, such tunes as "A Mighty Fortress," "America," or "Tallis Evening Hymn." In other styles the accent is quite strong. A child sings a song in waltz tempo. Of what use is it to spend time in instructing it to accent the first beat in each measure? It will feel the movement and the accent, and will sing it correctly while we are wasting our time either with the "time-language," "pinching," or in some other way. The child will just as easily accent any other song in any other kind of time that has distinct movement to it.

I am aware that to some of you this will be considered as rank heresy; but if you will think it over, then take a class and try the experiment, I think that you will find out that I am right. We have in some of our systems of instruction the "time-language," which is supposed to be used as an illustration of accent, and the division of time. As far as accent is concerned, I see no use in it whatever; and as an illustration of the division of time, or the relative length of sounds, it can be used with but little effect. But why use a new "time-language" when we already have one that can be much more easily understood? *One, two, three*, is surely simpler to the mind of the child than *ta-ta-te*; *one and two* than *ta-fa-ta*. The only advantage it has that I am able to see is where there are either three or four notes to one beat, and by the time these are used the child should have advanced far enough to learn how to sing them without the assistance of the time-language. In exceptional cases of peculiar accent and syncopation, which should only be taught in the higher grades of our schools, we can go deeper into this subject of accent, and explain more fully. But with the younger children in the lower grades, the time spent in teaching accent can be used to much better advantage. I have no doubt that such speakers as Mr. —, or Mr. —, can, in delivering a lecture before our school teachers, make this subject very interesting, and the teachers will go from the lecture to their classes flushed with some degree of enthusiasm, and will at once begin to waste precious time in unnecessary instruction in something that the pupil can do naturally, without knowing why, and in something that *they are too young to understand*. This I think is a great mistake, as

there are other things of more importance to be attended to, especially as in most of our schools a very limited portion of time is allowed us for the study of music, and every moment should be utilized in that which is most essential—such as reading readily at sight, accuracy of time, correct intonation, clearness and sweetness of tone, and creating a desire and love on the part of the pupils for the study of music.

There is one other point upon which I would like to say a few words. We have heard within the last year or two, and I have noticed in the last day or two, a great deal about “sound before representation,” as the educational principle underlying the study of music. “The sound before the representation”! This is surely reversing the order of things. If you should say, the thought before the sentence, the conception before the picture, this would be very good indeed when speaking of the poet, composer, or the painter; but when you apply it to the reader, the singer, or the art critic, it is altogether different. The representation of the poet’s thought in words must bring its meaning to the mind of the reader; the representation of the composer’s idea in notes must suggest the sound to the mind of the singer. Apply this to the school-room: if you want a child to sing the first, third, or fifth, how is he going to do it unless he sees the representation of it either in his book, on the board, on the fingers, or in some other way, unless, of course, you tell him yourself by word of mouth. The representation should come first, unless pupils are singing by imitation. In the first attempt of pupils to sing the scale as a unit it is well enough to sing the scale, have the pupils sing it, and then give the representation. We are told that the pupils must “*think* sounds.” Of course they think sounds; what else can they do before they sing them? But how are they to tell *what* sounds to think before they see the representation? There is no more “royal road” in the study of music than there is in any other study, although methods of instruction may be simplified and the presentation of the subject more easily understood by the lopping-off of all theories and explanations that are unnecessary or beyond the capacity of the pupil. Still there remain, nevertheless, certain facts to be learned as facts, and no amount of such remarks as “study what not to teach” will remove them. Explanations you must have; but suit them in amount and quality to the capacity of the child. The question with the instructor is, how much or how little of explanation shall be made? The child in the primary grade need know but little of the “whys” and “wherefores,” but it should know at least the value and appearance of a half or a quarter-note or rest, the degree of the staff on which *do* is placed, and the syllables of the scale. The child in a higher grade should at least know the signatures of the keys in which he sings, the meaning of the time-mark, the letters of the staff, and the value of other notes than a half or a quarter; and for the child to know these things, *some* explanations must be made. So, rather than say, the “sound before the representation,” let us say, the representation before the sound.

Of course it remains with the teacher to say how much and what kind of explanations are, in his judgment, necessary, and it also remains with the teacher to make the study of music, both practical and theoretical, interesting and intelligible to the pupil. The man or woman who has love for his art, love for children, and power of adaptability, cannot fail of success in this department of education.

ELEMENTARY MUSIC IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

J. H. ELWOOD, SAN JOSÉ, CALIFORNIA.

Poets sing of almost every subject under the sun. I am not a poet, nor do I intend in the little I may say upon the subject of "Elementary Music in our Public Schools" to spend much time upon the poetical side of it. Still, we often hear the expressions: "How beautiful!" "The very poetry of music!" "How charming!" like the "sighing of the breeze," or the "murmur of the babbling brook!" "How delightful, like the patter of the gentle raindrops upon the roof!" Now it is a question whether music in our public schools, under the most favorable circumstances, will ever come to that degree of perfection that "imagination's utmost stretch" can compare its harmonies to the "sighing of the breeze," or the "murmur of the babbling brook." Children's singing in our schools is not the kind of music that is usually compared to nature's melodies.

Then again, are our poets quite honest in the matter? When the bard chants of "music in the air," and in the "sighing of the gentle breeze," you may be quite sure that he is in no danger of freezing his nose, and that he has not, within half an hour, chased his hat a block in the middle of the street, or been obliged "to seek the seclusion" of the subterranean caves in his cellar, while his house is flying half a mile away on the wings of that same breeze. If he sings of the "music of the babbling brook," 'tis quite likely that a frosty stone has not sent him sprawling into that brook, with the thermometer at zero. If he sings to you of the "pattering of the gentle raindrops on the roof," and in the middle of the night is routed out of bed to scatter tin pans to catch the leakage, he will sing a different tune in the morning.

Thus, you see, the imagination has a great deal to do with poetical music; while on the other hand, practical music—the music that our little boys and girls must be taught—has its life in the energetic use of all the faculties brought to bear upon the study of any of the other arts or sciences. Practical music means *hard work*—it means *brain-work*.

Why should music be taught in our public schools? First, because it is *a subject of as much importance to the happiness, usefulness, morality, and*

general prosperity of a community as any other branch in our school curriculum.

It is to be deplored that, in this age of enlightenment and progress in the arts and sciences, there should be any need of discussing this part of our subject, and especially does it seem out of place in an assemblage like this — composed of the prominent educators of the state and nation.

If I had before me the fathers and mothers of our school-children, I should pray that my wisdom be increased an hundred fold, with power of voice to reach from sun to sun, from pole to pole, that I might “drive home” some of the reasons why this subject should receive more attention from the hands of our public educators. I should endeavor to show them that the easiest way to make *good* boys and girls is to make *happy* boys and girls. I should tell them that it is a doubtful question whether it is conducive to the happiness of their children to teach them to spend their days in ciphering out per cents, reckoning interest, delving, scrimping for the best fifty years of their lives that they may live in a “brown-stone front” and creep around with the rheumatism for the last twenty. I should say to them: Teach your children to use, in a rational manner, all the faculties God has given them, whether it be for labor or amusement, to the end that they may secure a fuller measure of happiness for themselves and those around them, thereby making the world a little better for their living in it.

Fathers and mothers, do you wish to tread the “royal road” that leads to the easiest way to govern your children? If so, polish the home-life, smooth the “ragged edges,” do away with the harsh words that serve to make the temper stubborn, and the child untruthful; substitute loving words, kindly teachings, and above all else, the most charming of all influences — music.

Solomon says, “Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it,” and like a wise man, does not tell us what to do, without telling us a way to do it; therefore, he says, “Spare the rod and spoil the child.” We do not wish to be understood as interfering, in any way, with the wise sayings of that ancient expounder of the best way to manage family affairs, but we do believe that music, rightly used, is far more effective in making the government of the family, or the school, easy

will make better boys and girls — than all the rods in the world. In fact, as a rule, bad boys and bad girls are not found in the family where music finds a place, either as an amusement or as a study. Two or three years ago, one of the prominent teachers of this state, noted for his executive ability and tact in managing and disciplining, was placed in charge of one of the most disorderly schools in this city. For one term the government was somewhat in accordance with Solomon’s rule; the next term, general singing was introduced in every class; he informs me that the change for the better was wonderful, the pupils being more attentive and respectful, and more easily governed. Observe a class of boys and girls after a musical

exercise of twenty or thirty minutes under an energetic teacher, and see if their faces do not express satisfaction and enjoyment in the work; see if they do not appear brighter, more enthusiastic, and ready to vigorously apply themselves to mastering their other tasks.

But there is still more to this question: Music is, and always has been, an important factor in civilizing and christianizing the world, and although we have not the time, nor is this the place, to discuss the merits of the song and the sermon in relation thereto, it must be conceded by all that music in some form enters more closely into our everyday life than any of the other arts or accomplishments that can be mentioned.

Our churches—almost always in trouble and worry over the musical part of their services—do not realize the difference it would make to them if singing were properly taught in our schools. Many of them cannot find among their congregations the talent for even a respectable choir, and are obliged to go outside and hire a quartet, the proficiency of which, in most cases, will not compare favorably with the choirs they might secure by properly training their own boys and girls. Entertainments of all kinds are lifeless if music does not occupy a prominent place upon the programme. If the “glorious Fourth” is to be celebrated, the snap of the fire-cracker is not sufficient to gratify “Young America’s” rising ambition to be independent, but it will be the squeak of the fife and the rattle of the drum to the martial strains of “Yankee Doodle” that will convince him that he is having a “Fourth of July.” The irrepressible boy would not enjoy his “May Day” picnic at all if he could not hear the toot of the cornet and the clanging of the band in the forward van, however much out of tune.

Secondly, music should be taught in our public schools, because its great importance demands that the study of it should be placed within reach of every boy and girl in the land.

Music is not an easy study to master. In fact, to attain a proficiency that would enable one to teach it with the same degree of confidence and success that he would teach arithmetic or geography, requires more time than either of these studies. It is a mathematical study, a grammatical study, an elocutionary study, besides being a new language, a tone-language, as difficult in itself to conquer as any of our commoner studies. In a school where nearly five hundred young ladies and gentlemen were fitting themselves for teachers, the following question was asked: “Which among the following branches, reading, writing, spelling, music, arithmetic, grammar, or geography, is the most difficult study for you to master so that you feel the same confidence in your ability to teach it that you do in the others?” Some said spelling, others grammar, and a few arithmetic and geography, but nearly seventy-five per cent. agreed that singing was the most difficult of all.

We have now given a few of the many reasons why this subject is an important one, and also shown that it is a study requiring a great deal of time and work to conquer it even in its rudimental form. Hence singing should

be taught in our public schools because it cannot reach the majority of our boys and girls in any other way.

We now come to the most important part of this subject. How should music be taught in our public schools? It should have its proper and equal place, receive as much time and careful attention as any of the other studies in our school catalogue. It should, if possible, be taught by teachers trained in this subject; but if this is not possible, the regular teacher of the school should fit himself, or herself, to teach singing with the same readiness and accuracy that he teaches reading or arithmetic. It should be taught in such a manner that, whatever methods are used, the result will be that the pupils learn to read music at sight with nearly the same facility that they read words at sight.

Whence comes this general lack of interest in the subject of music in our public schools? Why is it that there is any difficulty in placing this most useful and beautiful of all the arts in its proper place in our school system?

It takes a long time to root out old-time ways and customs among the people, even though we may propose to substitute others which, to those who have given them a great deal of thought, seem to be better. It is impossible to believe that the lack of interest in the subject on the part of parents arises from any unwillingness to have their children taught to sing, but from the fact that their own knowledge of the subject, as compared with their knowledge of the other branches taught, is very limited.

With the commencement of the period of common schools began the education of the people in those studies considered necessary for practical, everyday use; and the children who went to school thirty or forty years ago are the fathers and mothers of the children who are going to school to-day; and these children are taught to read, write and cipher, going over the same ground their parents are more or less familiar with. Consequently on the part of the parents there is no lack of interest in the progress of their children in these studies. But when it comes to the study of music their interest ceases, because of their own lack of information upon the subject; in fact, they consider it of no practical value, and that at most it should only occupy time sufficient to enable the pupils to become proficient enough to entertain visitors and show off the school. We may perhaps be justified in entertaining a suspicion that even some of our teachers look upon it as a sort of varnish to cover up weak places. This is deplorable, on account of the subject itself, which deserves better treatment. It is a state of things not easy to remedy, nor will it be remedied until those in authority, who know the importance of the matter, have the courage to take the responsibility of placing it side by side with its sister studies; and when it has once taken root it will be as difficult to take it out of our public schools as it is now to gain for it a recognition.

Once in, what then? As before stated, it would be better for all concerned if the subject could be taught by one who makes music a profession.

but this cannot be done in the country schools, for obvious reasons; therefore it must devolve upon the regular teacher to instruct in vocal music.

Our school law says instruction must be given in the following branches: reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, grammar, history, elements of physiology, vocal music, elements of book-keeping, and industrial drawing. This means—if it means anything—that every teacher must know enough about music to teach rudimental theory and the art of singing easy, simple music at sight. It is said, that if teachers were required to teach vocal music the same as any other study, it would throw one-half of them out of employment. This statement is not true, for if our school trustees and boards of education should interpret the law according to the letter and spirit of it, and say, “We will employ no teachers who are not competent to teach singing,” we should have a speedy illustration of the old adage, “Necessity is the mother of invention,” for our teachers would soon see to it that they were qualified for this part of their work.

The question of methods to be employed to bring about the best results, in the shortest time, is one of importance, and should receive more attention than the limits of such a paper as this will allow. It is a subject upon which educated and enthusiastic teachers honestly disagree.

There are four systems, or methods, being taught to a greater or less extent, viz.: “Rote singing,” “movable *do*,” “stationary *do*,” and “Tonic Sol-fa.” From reports received from three hundred and forty-three cities and towns in the United States, by the Bureau of Education at Washington, the following statistics are taken: Out of the three hundred and forty-three reports received, ninety-six report that no musical instruction is given; six of the number report that singing is permitted. From the two hundred and forty-three remaining, fifty are teaching either by rote, or no system at all; twenty-two are using the “fixed *do*” system, five the “Tonic Sol-fa,” thirty-seven various modifications and combinations, and one hundred and twenty-nine the “movable *do*” system.

By the above report, it appears that the “movable *do*” system is the one most in use; six towns and cities are using this system where one is using the “fixed *do*” system; twenty-six are using this system where one is using the “Tonic Sol-fa” system. It appears, then, that so far as these reports show, the preference is for the “movable *do*” system over all others, in the ratio of nearly two to one.

We shall not take the time to describe these various methods in detail, and shall only say that there is good in any system that will make readers of music of our children.

This, in my opinion, is the one most important point to be aimed at in the rudimental musical education of boys and girls. Experience teaches that children rightly taught, from the primary to the grammar grade, will read the music of simple, easy tunes with nearly the same degree of correctness that they will read the words set underneath.

Why should children be taught to read music? First, because they will become much more interested in the subject than if taught to sing a few songs by rote. Second, when the mind as well as the ear begins to work, pupils will pay much better attention to the instruction of the teacher in forming correct tones. Third, if children are taught to sing by rote, the habit becomes so firmly fixed in a short time that it is only by severe application and a great deal of time that they can afterwards become readers of music.

Singing by rote bears the same relation to the subject of music as learning to put figures upon a slate or blackboard, in a certain order, does to arithmetic.

I once knew a young man who could cipher from addition to fractions in the old "Adams Arithmetic," and could do it just as well without the book as with it, but he could not perform with any degree of correctness examples not in the book. That is learning arithmetic by rote. Should we teach grammar by having the pupils repeat the parts of speech, and parse by rule? Should we teach history by giving names and dates like different-colored buttons on a string? Should we teach composition by standing before a class and repeating Patrick Henry's speech? Should we teach little boys and girls to read by repeating to them over and over again, "Jack and Gill went up the Hill," or "Old Mother Hubbard went to the cupboard"? No. Then why teach children to sing by a method that we condemn, if used in teaching any other study? Why fill them with songs like a hand-organ, to be ground out at will, or like a music-box, warranted to play so many tunes before running down? Why forget that in teaching this subject, as well as any other, brain-work is necessary, and that we must empty the measure before we can fill it again?

We know that children learn all things first by imitation, and it is maintained by some that to connect with the tone any symbol of music that shall appeal to the eye and to the mind of the child, is too difficult, and should not be allowed. Long before children are of the age to attend the public school, they have not only learned a great many words by sound, but know the meaning of them. No one thinks of its being too great a strain upon even the baby's mind, when it begins to lisp papa, to look at papa, and it would be absurd to suppose that the child does not soon learn what the words papa and mamma mean. Hence if children learn to pronounce words of one or two syllables, and to know their meaning long before they go to school, are they not able without fear of injury to attack words of one syllable, like *do*, *re*, *mi*, and make some application of their meaning? They are capable of doing this, and doing much more. Brain-work, connected with tone-work, lends new charm to the study every day, so that after a few months of careful, correct practice in the *do*, *re*, *mi* system, even the smallest and youngest will begin to read music.

Whether the "movable *do*," or the "fixed *do*," or the "Tonic Sol-fa" sys-

tem is used, it is evident that thorough drill upon the intervals of the major scale is the foundation-work in teaching children to become readers of music, and if judiciously taken in hand, it is not so formidable a task to conquer as many suppose. Of the fifty-six different intervals within the octave of a scale both ascending and descending, thirty-two are easily acquired by boys and girls of moderate musical ability. The remaining twenty-four, together with the few intervals reaching from one octave into another, although somewhat more difficult, can be easily mastered, if within the compass of children's voices, in a few months, by patient practice.

Whether it be that teaching music to children is looked upon by many as an occupation too insignificant to be engaged in, or whether, knowing the skill and tact required, they doubt their ability to teach it successfully, it is to be deplored that so many of our teachers dislike to engage in this most important branch of music teaching. When we hear the remark, "Oh, I don't like to teach children; they are so stupid," we may be reasonably sure that at some time some teacher has had a stupid pupil to deal with. A class of fifteen or twenty little boys and girls is never listless or stupid, unless from example set by their instructor.

The teacher who would be successful in training boys and girls to sing properly must possess varied and sterling qualifications for the work. It is easy to make a Patti, if you have Patti timber, but it is not easy to teach one hundred average school-children to sing well, with the material they will bring to you. It is not a difficult matter to increase the bearing of a healthy, vigorous fruit tree; for it will thrive if the weeds are kept out, and the top does not become too heavy for the root; but it takes all the skill of the husbandman to properly train the tiny sprout, transplanted from its home in the nursery, when it opens its first bud to be kissed by the breath of early spring-time. He looks with feelings of love and delight upon the tender plant that he has cared for, until it unfolds—a thing of beauty, and views with alarm the pruning-shears in the hands of the apprentice, fearing he may prune too much, thereby retarding the growth; or that he may not prune enough, forgetting that the tree is to bear fruit, and not leaves. The skillful artisan handles with firmness and confidence, yet with gentleness, the tools with which he fashions the raw material into a masterpiece of elegant, but delicate design.

The skillful astronomer works with wonderful patience and perseverance to unfold to us knowledge of the heavenly bodies, and to interpret the language they speak.

If, then, it requires love, knowledge, firmness, gentleness, confidence, patience and perseverance to cause inanimate things to bear fruit, how much more should they who would gather a harvest from the animate, fashioned in God's own image, be imbued with the same spirit.

It is said of the once-famous vocalist, Madame Malibran, that when a friend complimented her on her rendering of the rondo in "*Sonnambula*"

which comprises three octaves and ends with a very high trill, difficult to master, she replied: "I am very glad you are pleased, for I have been running after that trill for months; I have pursued it everywhere—when walking, when arranging my hair, when dressing, and the other morning I found it in the bottom of my shoe, when putting it on." Let us find the voices of our boys and girls, even if we search for them in the bottom of their shoes.

Fellow-teachers, we must not let the words, "There is room at the top," ring in our ears until we forget that to remain at the top with safety the foundation must be secure, that the corner-stone is of more importance than the brick that crowns the structure, and that the corner-stone of our system of musical education is the proper teaching of this subject in our common schools.

WHAT CAN SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS DO TO ADVANCE PROPER MUSICAL INSTRUCTION?

L. W. DAY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

It does not seem necessary at this time to urge especially the importance of the study of vocal music as a branch of instruction in the public schools of the land. That battle has been fought and won in all the more intelligent and progressive sections of our common country. But it does seem necessary to urge that the importance of this study shall be more fully and more practically acknowledged by those who are in positions to render definite and persistent aid in furthering the highest interests of this branch of educational effort; that certain influences not now fully exerted and possibly not fully appreciated, shall be called forth and exercised in such manner as to place the subject of music where it belongs—among the most important in the curriculum of common-school work.

That a struggle should ever have arisen over the introduction of vocal music as a branch of study is something of a mystery to those who realize even in a faint degree the benefits secured through any serious efforts made in the line of accomplishing even ordinary results in this department of study.

If we grant that music is a mere personal accomplishment, valueless except to him who possesses it; if it be a mere "æsthetic appendage," valuable only as an ornament; or if its chief value lies in promoting the power to amuse and entertain occasionally; and further, if even this power is attainable only by the gifted few; if, in other words, we ignore the educational side of this question, then there may be grounds for opposition to the study of this subject in the schools of the state.

But the premises indicated are not granted, and never can be.

On the contrary, there can be little difficulty in establishing the fact that a proper and thorough study of vocal music, especially by the young, involves the cultivation of both the mental and the moral faculties of the human mind; that it calls for the exercise of judgment, of feeling, and of expression; that the eye, the voice, the ear, the heart, must act promptly and accurately as an individual part of a grand whole; that this study pre-eminently involves growth and development, thought and education, in the broadest and truest sense; that it calls into action a kind of effort not reached by any other educational process, touching the heart, frequently laying hold of the soul, and constantly emphasizing the absolute importance of harmony in all its breadth and beauty, revealing so the truth that individual enterprise is not dwarfed by being blended with associated effort, but rather that individual success comes most surely when we place ourselves in full accord with all that is right and commendable in our surroundings—a lesson of the utmost value in the practical concerns of every-day life.

But the essays already presented to this Department of the National Educational Association, together with the able discussions which have followed, have sufficiently considered and emphasized the importance of this branch of educational enterprise. It is almost universally admitted that great progress has been made, but I trust that no one is so optimistic in his views as to suppose that the goal has been reached. Far from it. It is doubtless true that in some sections the old method of learning songs by rote, through the medium of interminable drill, calling the operation “teaching music,” still prevails. But almost everywhere this method has gone to the wall, and methods based more or less on correct educational principles have been adopted.

That a child can learn to read music quite as readily and as accurately as he can any other reading, is proven by the indisputable fact that it is done in many schools. What is done in one place can be done in other places, with the exercise of an equal amount of thoughtful effort and intelligence. In doing this, it is just as essential to know and observe the laws of mental growth and development as it is in other subjects, and no more so. Why admit theoretically and ignore practically? In this subject as in others, it is not the *what* alone that is to be considered, but also the *who*, the *why*, the *how*—all great factors which must be considered, or we shall stumble upon them, fall, and fail.

In the light of all this, what can superintendents do toward making success as complete as possible? Much, every way. In the administration of educational affairs, he should give this question much close thought, and not leave the whole matter to be fought out by the director or teacher of music, no matter how competent the latter may be. He should understand the scope and purpose of the work so well that he can judge fairly of the methods employed, even if he is not able to apply the test of an expert.

The director or teacher of music has a right to know that the superintendent has a genuine interest in the success of his work, and that he appreciates its importance, its difficulties, and its possibilities; and that in all laudable efforts to elevate the standard of work he can rely upon his steady support.

But what are some of the definite things that the superintendent can and should do?

He should be thoroughly grounded as to what an elementary education in music really means, to what extent it may properly be carried in public-school work, and the most approved method employed. He may learn much from reading the reports of schools relating to this work, but he should not depend upon this source of information. He should enter the school-room, witness the work attempted and accomplished, satisfy himself as to what "singing new music at sight" means, what correct voice-training is as affected by this study; he should observe the ability of pupils, not only to analyze, but also to construct; not only to produce harmonious tones, but to detect them accurately and promptly. But, above all, he should understand fully the educational principles underlying all this, so that he may become a stalwart in its defense.

He should, by careful investigation, satisfy himself as to the value of this study as a means of mental growth and æsthetic development, and having thus satisfied himself, he should be ready to insist upon its importance, not only with the public generally, but especially with his teachers, when occasion requires.

Careful investigation in the light of recognized laws of mental acquirement will satisfy him of the extreme fallacy of the statement that none but those possessed of a "natural talent" can be greatly benefited by the study of music. He should post himself on this subject, and be an active factor in making the teaching of music universal in the schools under his supervision. The few cases of apparent hardship that may arise require simply some slight modification for the time being, and not an abandonment of the principle that all can learn and make progress. This point admitted, he should insist that music be made a regular study, with a prescribed course of instruction having a definite place on each day's programme, and requiring the same determined, earnest effort that is bestowed upon other subjects.

No teacher who employs his entire educational capital in his daily work can do really well. While it is the duty of the superintendent to support the director of music in all proper efforts, it is also his duty to see that said director knows something of other subjects as well as of music. The superintendent should insist upon having, in this department as in others, the services of ladies and gentlemen of broad culture, liberal views, and generous impulses.

It is usually necessary for the regular teacher to do much of the required work in music. The superintendent should therefore see to it as far

as practicable, that teachers are qualified to give this instruction, holding or causing to be held regular normal classes for all incompetents in this line.

He should see that each year's work is broadly and at the same time definitely preparatory for that which is to follow.

In short, he should recognize the importance of this branch of work, and do for it what he would for any other—that is, see that the best talent is obtained, and that the best results possible are secured. All this and much more he can and should do.

There are some things which the superintendent should not do.

If a director of music is employed, the superintendent should never assume his duties, nor do his planning and thinking. He should be given much authority and be held for satisfactory results.

The superintendent's office should never become the bureau of aid and comfort to careless and indifferent teachers; neither should he excuse thoughtlessness in this department of school-work more than in any other; nor yet should he listen to the complaints of indolent pupils nor their prejudiced parents. He should listen to just criticism, but he should not tolerate carping. He should be wise and firm, but he should never depend upon his *dictum*, except in extreme cases. He should never underrate the fact that others as well as himself have the best interests of the school at heart, and that, though their experience may not be as wide and varied as his, it is, nevertheless, valuable, and worthy of consideration.



SPECIAL
ADDRESSES AND REPORTS.



SPECIAL ADDRESSES AND REPORTS.

*A NEW PLAN FOR THE EDUCATION OF HINDOO WOMEN.**

THE PUNDITA RAMABAI.

I know that you, as teachers and as Christian men and women, have been engaging your minds in the lofty thought of educating people of other countries as well as your own, and I have no doubt that many of you have been engaged in missionary work. I know you have sent missionaries to our country, as well as has Great Britain. All these good people who have gone from Christian lands have been earnestly trying to reach the people in various ways. Among others they are educating their women, which is, I think, a matter of great importance.

Now in India the caste system prevents the missionaries from reaching what we call "the high-class child-widows." I have no doubt many of you read in the Century Magazine for September, 1886, an essay entitled "Hindoo Widows," written by a Hindoo gentleman. I suppose he was an orthodox man. But he has correctly presented the condition of the women "widows" in India. If you have not read that essay I would earnestly request you to do so; and if you have read it, read it again. This essay has perhaps reached the very inner part of the houses of India, and related the actual condition of those high-class child-widows.

Now if we want to really reach the families of India and to do something for them, to enlighten them and to carry Christian knowledge and education to these poor people, we must reach these women through the high-class child-widow. These widows have been made outcasts by the social relations of their land, as well as by the religious sentiment of our country. We need educational and industrial institutions where free instruction will be given to these women, and where they may be supported so long as they are not able to support themselves. In this way, I think, we will be carrying useful knowledge into those families that most need it. There are many men in India who realize the necessity of educating their women; but they are not brave enough to come forward and establish schools for themselves and send their wives to these schools. But these men would be glad enough to have English governesses and teachers in their own homes.

To provide for these families, and to reach them by means of these private teachers, we must in the first place prepare the teachers who can edu-

cate these child-widows, and who in turn will become the teachers of future generations in India.

In order to rescue these women from their degradation, as well as from the misery which is worse than death, I have thought out a plan which has come upon me from long experience among them and careful study of their condition. About seven years ago, when I was traveling in my own country, I presented their cause to my people and asked their assistance to educate these child-widows, or to establish some educational institutions for them. But the majority of our men do not believe in educating women. They think that they will be made discontented with their lot, and that perhaps a great many things will come; perhaps they will receive enlightenment from education. And so they will not give any assistance. Then again, these people who understand the necessity are very poor and cannot give us any support in money. Of course the institutions which are to educate these women require a great deal of money, and those few people who perhaps would give some money to their support, and who perhaps do not know at present what the result will be, require to have this fact demonstrated to them: that is, that some good can be done by establishing such institutions. And so, although I tried to the best of my ability in my own country, I got very little support in this matter. Then I went to England; there also I tried, but did not succeed. Then I came to America, and I am happy to say that now I have secured pledges from friends for forty thousand dollars at least, in two years' time. Now one institution, industrial and educational, for the high-class child-widows will be established shortly after my return home. About thirty-five thousand dollars are needed for this purpose. Although I understand the importance and necessity of introducing Christian education among our women, I still am in favor of giving freedom of thought to them as well as all other people. Whether they will accept the Christian education or not will be left entirely to themselves; we shall not interfere with their personal freedom. It will be our duty, in the institution that I propose to establish, to place before them the best religious instruction that we are capable of, and afterwards leave them to work out their own spiritual improvement. We will place the Bible in their hands, and let them read it and then do as they choose. It is the work of the Spirit, I believe, to lead them to a higher knowledge of God, and is not mine. Therefore I will not compel these teachers nor the pupils to study the Bible. If they come to my school I shall present them with a copy of the Bible, if they choose to read it.

So on these different lines I will ask the assistance of all who are interested in educating any people to give us their moral as well as their financial support, and advance this cause for the rescue of the "high-class child-widows in India." I beg of you not to think we are too far away; it is only about 14,000 miles from here. To be sure, we are of a different nationality, but I beg of you to hold in your minds the one fact that we are human beings

after all, and perhaps children of the same kind Father who takes care of you. I do not believe you will fail to have an interest in us, or refuse to give us your support so far as you can.

If we can begin this work in a small way, in a few years' time perhaps my own countrymen will themselves be willing to maintain these institutions which have been established through the generosity of the American people.

With this purpose, my friends, I have come here before you as teachers and educators to ask your support. I ask you to do as much as you can when you go back to your homes, to present this cause to your people as well as to your pupils, and to arouse a friendly feeling toward this important work. We have on the list of our supporters in Boston people who have pledged themselves to carry on this work for ten years at least. We have among our officers the Rev. Doctor Hall, Lyman Abbott, and many other men and women of great influence. We have a board of trustees in Boston, the chairman of which is the ex-Governor of Massachusetts, Mr. Rice. So we have our plans at work with a body of representative men and women who take an interest in it. We have forty thousand dollars pledged, and now want about thirty-five thousand dollars more. I am sure this assemblage alone is able to give that, and I will not detain you a moment longer if you will give me thirty-five thousand dollars right away, and let me sail for home to-morrow.

There is not much time for me, and I do not want to take your time, either; but I am deeply interested in the welfare of one hundred and twenty-two millions of women who are sitting literally in darkness and ignorance. I want you to keep them in your mind. I want you to remember the more than seventy-nine thousand child-widows who are under nine years of age, who for no fault of their own, but through the religious belief of the people of the whole country, are made outcasts, and looked upon as the curse of their land. Keep these little children in your mind, compare their state with your own little children, and I am sure that whoever is a mother or a father here will be aroused to do this kindness, and support me as far as you can; and I know as American people you are able to do it. I shall hope in a few weeks to raise this remaining thirty-five thousand dollars, and start for home.

THE AIMS OF THE DELSARTEAN DISCIPLES.

EDNA SNELL POULSON, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA.

We endeavor, first, to free ourselves of all affectation and falsehood in physical expression, and to be simple, natural, and sincere.

Secondly, by training the body to yield itself to the service of the higher

emotions and to express the subtlest phases of sensibility, we aim to quicken the volitional and affectional natures, thus inspiring the love of goodness.

Thirdly, we aim to develop the body symmetrically, giving grace and freedom to its movements, dignity and repose to its bearings, thus stimulating the adoration of the beautiful.

We believe this physical education to be a necessary basis for the evolution of the highest manhood; for, unless the body has been so trained that it is the ready servant of the will, it is dumb and inarticulate as an agent for expression—and to express the spiritual life which animates it, to be a medium for the filtration of spiritual energy through matter, is the noblest function of the human organism.

For the source of all changes on the surface of the body, Delsarte forever points us to the soul as the motor center from which all expression is a radiation. So the bearing, motions and positions of the body symbolize the characteristics, emotions, and conditions of the soul.

Our gesticulation, then, is a muscular vocabulary which interprets for us the fluctuations in force, energy, and passion, in thought and reason, in affection and volition.

This alphabet of gesture, this muscular vocabulary, is it not the universal speech, the Volapük of all ages, the most eloquent and the simplest of all languages? Its most significant and forcible employment is seen in its relation to the dramatic art, but as I am not addressing specialists in my own department of instruction, I will merely state the advantages to health and character of the Delsarte training.

It is hygienically superior to every other system of physical culture, because it is the only one that does not begin with increase of nervous tension. Yet this is precisely the factor which the existing conditions of civilization give us in repletion. Unconscious constriction is the very element of which we most need to rid ourselves.

Our introspective age, full of critical self-accusation—conscience educated until it makes cowards of us all—has given a constraint to the physique, a rigidity to the muscles, and we need to cultivate flexible, elastic, lithe, supple and plastic conditions to overcome this. We must overcome this rigidity in the muscles, for it means frigidity in the emotions and their expression.

Upon the nervous systems of American women is reflected with intensity the suffocating repression, the conventional constraint, which is the residuum of the sober, earnest, but narrow and incomplete lives of our Puritan forefathers. This desperate intensity leads to nervous exaggeration, and makes us awkward and angular in the carriage of our shoulders, void of system and poise in walking, self-conscious, restless and miserable in our attitudes. Contrast us with the light-hearted, volatile people of Southern Europe. We find grace and elastic freedom in all their movements—their bodies supple and capable of spontaneous and harmonious action; while our neighbors of the Pacific islands, with rudimentary intellects, are marvels of lissomeness and willowy grace.

That physical degeneracy is not necessarily a sequence of intellectual splendor, is proven by a comparison of Greek literature with the types embodied in Grecian art. If our American "smartness" has been purchased at the usurious rate of decrease in vitality, it is because of the lack of balance between the cultivation of the brain and body. Our system of education fits itself to the brains alone; it is only conscious that so many ounces of cerebral matter have come into the school-room to be stimulated into action. It ignores the vital, it would degrade and expel the emotional, nature.

This one-sidedness in education, and the anxious strain of our business-driven age, tend to increase this abnormal nervous tension, so that when we would relax into a normal condition of childlike passivity, by some unconscious cerebration the defiant volition maintains its grasp, and the muscles remain rigid, restricting freedom of motion, stifling the healthful music of the pulses.

Let me illustrate the workings of the unconscious cerebration. It makes us stiffen the muscles of the neck when the body is in motion, as though an anxious effort of the will were required to prevent the head from rolling off into a neighboring gutter. The same faithlessness in our anatomy manifests itself in the carriage of the shoulders, the arms, the hands, and the feet. The spinal column loses its sinuosities, and becomes as inflexible as the heart of Pharaoh.

So we really bind ourselves, hand and foot, hip and thigh, and hand ourselves over to the tortures of embarrassing self-consciousness, neuralgia, paralysis, insomnia, and insanity.

To overcome this unconscious bondage of the will, this extravagant and absurd expenditure of vital energy, we must be taught to let go of ourselves, to surrender the individual to the universal. This requires muscular abnegation, a return to the childlike simplicity of nature. "Except ye become as little children, ye cannot enter into the kingdom."

The Delsarte training begins with a series of relaxing or devitalizing exercises, teaching us to release each muscle from the control of the will and give it absolute rest. It teaches us to require each muscle to relax its fussy interference and attend to its own affairs, and to remain in a state of restful passivity until the mind summons it into action. This gives that simplicity and repose which Ruskin says is "the unfailing test of beauty."

Indeed, the sublimest effort of the muscular tissue is seen in the endeavor to obliterate and transform itself, that the light of the indwelling soul, with its "trailing clouds of glory," may be visible.

But you are asking yourselves, How can these exercises influence character? Delsarte teaches that the relations between the physical and the psychical are so intricate and subtle that whatever form of expression is given to one reflects itself upon the other. As the body assumes mean and groveling attitude, or majestic and beautiful ones, so the mind will be influenced. *The correspondence between beauty of motion and beauty of soul*

may seem fanciful and visionary at first thought, and, because it is somewhat elusive and mystical, I wish to emphasize it.

That physical poses correspond to moral sentiments, is proven by the fact that certain attitudes of the body are the unvarying accompaniments of certain emotions. Defiance and prostration, reverence and scorn, dignity and servility, courage and cowardice, have each their muscular synonyms. Manner is the unconscious revelator of character, it is the soul's handwriting upon the walls of flesh.

Delsarte's statement concerning the reflex influence of attitude upon character has been verified by hundreds of his disciples.

I can refer you to many of my pupils who are teaching these exercises in the San Francisco and Oakland schools, who have assured themselves by experience that by training the body to assume noble physical poses it is possible to inspire in mind and heart the elevated sentiments symbolized in these attitudes.

Does this seem to you an esoteric muddle?

Yet if your pupils use words that are coarse and shocking to a refined taste, if they express sentiments full of cruelty and blood-thirstiness, do you think their natures would escape infection?

In the extended meaning which Delsartians give to expression, gestures are but words, attitudes are sentiments, and in the bearing of the body are our convictions "manifested in the flesh."

Encourage, then, attitudes that are sympathetic, royal, and significant of spiritual heroism.

Do not permit the practice of exercises that are only aggressive, belligerent, coarsely assertive of self.

A large part of the muscular exercises in use in our schools are physical equivalents of the pugilistic type of passions, and produce the corresponding psychic conditions—violence and spiritual degradation.

But by teaching our pupils to apply the principles of taste and harmony to their own movements, to strive for grace and beauty and truth in their physical development, we may awaken in them dormant æsthetic and artistic impulses. They will soon perceive that to be torpid, awkward, and ignoble in physique indicates in some degree a lack of rightness in character, of aspiration, sentiment and firmness in feeling. The treasures of the Vatican and the Parthenon are forever beyond the reach of most of us; but the principles of beauty are eternal, and the human form divine which furnished the inspiration of the Greeks holds the same possibilities of perfection as when Phidias fixed on the frieze of the Parthenon the imperishable beauty of the Athenian people.

THE WORKING OF A TEACHERS' AID SOCIETY.

NELLIE E. OWENS, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

The presentation of this paper at this time is in response to many inquiries, made by friends upon this coast as well as by Eastern friends, relative to the aim of the association known as the San Francisco Teachers' Mutual Aid Society. Forming but a very small factor of the great public-school system of the United States, we were gratified to receive a very cordial invitation from the officers of our State Committee to unite with them in the pleasant duty of welcoming to our city the members of the N. E. A., and also to answer these inquiries by giving a brief history of our society.

Necessarily, any sketch of our growth as an organization, and any explanation of the details of our working-plans, present but very meager opportunities for brilliant rhetorical display. Many not interested in mutual-aid topics, beyond a doubt will find the subject far from interesting—a rattling skeleton, whose bones are labeled facts and statistics. To these we grant indulgences, allowing the widest latitude as regards attention to our theme, for it will lack certainly many pleasing qualities of style: for example, the poetic rhythm of a dissertation upon our glorious climate, our big trees, our Yosemite, our golden grain-fields nodding their heads to our Eastern friends in mute but cordial welcome, our dear old Sierras smiling down from amid their snowy heights with sincere delight at the friendly greetings between the East and the West during these cheery July days.

An unassuming little pamphlet containing our creed bears the title, "Constitution and By-Laws of the San Francisco Teachers' Mutual Aid Society." We learn on reading further, that we are, from a Californian standpoint for associations of any sort, quite well along in years, for our city here by the setting sun has made many a stride forward in the march of progress since 1873, when a little band of thoughtful teachers met in council grave to formulate their plans for organization.

Opening this tiny volume of well-digested law, we note the preamble:

"We, the undersigned, desiring to organize and to maintain a society the objects of which shall be to care for and give pecuniary aid to the teachers when sick and unable to attend to their duties, do hereby agree to the following

CONSTITUTION.—Section 1. This society shall be known by the name of the San Francisco Teachers' Mutual Aid Society, and shall be composed of regularly-elected teachers of the Public School Department of the city and county of San Francisco who have been admitted in accordance with the by-laws."

A strange misunderstanding of the nature of our work existed to some extent during the earlier years. Some few of our members regarded the pecuniary aid as a charitable bequest—a sort of alms, as it were—and consequently in some few isolated cases our books bear record of donations *of the weekly benefits returned.*

Some considered us narrow in our rulings when we refused to draw upon our treasury to aid fellow-teachers who had not enrolled as Mutual Aid members. Many appeals were made to us by colleagues in the department in behalf of some suffering one who had, alas, like the grasshopper, enjoyed the summer and forgotten to provide for the winter. Our sympathies have gone out to these friends oftentimes; but our little treasury, as the weeks rolled on, could spare nothing beyond that required to meet the fast increasing demands of those enrolled upon our books.

Section one, given above, was the rock upon which our little craft soon struck. Limiting the membership to the public schools seemed particularly objectionable to some, while to others restricting the enrollment to San Francisco seemed indicative of a very circumscribed field of action. Applications from private-school teachers, and from public-school teachers of other counties, kept this subject an open question for some time; but earnest discussions proved conclusively that to grant either point would complicate our framework of organization, and render a cumbersome advisory supervision necessary.

Section two demands semi-annual meetings of the Society in August and January, and a wise by-law inflicts a fine of \$1 for absence for any reason other than illness, absence from the city, or death in the family. This is a sovereign remedy for slack attendance. The meetings are large and quite often the battle-field of hotly-contested wordy combats.

The executive power is vested in a corps of twelve officers known as the board of directors. This staff consists of the president and vice-presidents, recording and financial secretaries, and a treasurer, whom we, in accordance with a time-honored custom, make sure of by requiring a bond with sureties to the sum of \$2,000.

At the regular meeting in July an election of officers takes place, one-half of the board alternating with the other half. The term of office lasts for two years. This board of directors has full power to transact all necessary business when the society is not in session, to admit new members and for good cause to reject applicants, to make and to enforce rules for the proper care of sick members, to regulate the paying of benefits, and to see that they are promptly paid. This board of executive officers holds regular meetings on the first and third Wednesdays of each month, at 4 P. M.

Each person, on becoming a member, pays an entrance fee of \$10, which must in all cases be handed to the financial secretary before the member can be considered entitled to the rights and privileges of the Society, and each member pays to the Society, as dues, the sum of fifty cents per month. These sections outline our visible means of support, but we are also indebted to an energetic band of enthusiasts, and God bless the enthusiasts!—that gulf stream in the great mingling currents of humanity that steadily moves onward, distancing the counter-currents and whirlpools crossing and revolving in their petty circles. These enthusiasts have, during the last fifteen

years, placed in our treasury about \$10,000. This good work has been done in the following manner: May, 1874, found our little society celebrating our first anniversary, and meditating with a very serious aspect upon the condition of our treasury, thirty-five members enrolled, and \$200 to our credit in one of our city banks. The very low figure of \$2.50, at which the initiation fee had been fixed at the time of our organization, was evidently a mistake, and so at this date we increased it to \$5. But the great world-wide question of capital would present itself, and so our busy workers fell to with a will. We, the San Francisco Teachers' Mutual Aid, would enter upon the arena of public amusements and organize a picnic, concert and lecture bureau. The wisdom and good judgment of this plan is probably best appreciated in the net profit given you above, about \$10,000.

A paper of this kind would be lacking in a very serious way were some positive statements in figures not made, so permit us to introduce here some items found in our treasurer's books showing two things: the cordial support the public of our city gave to our amusement bureau, and the executive ability of our directors in carrying out these various entertainments. The figures represent net profit in each case. Picnic, Woodward's Garden, June 1, 1874, \$1,765.25; drama, amateur company, 1875, \$676.15; picnic, 1877, \$1,118.62; picnic, 1879, \$1,324.07; picnic, 1881, \$734.75; picnic, 1885, \$576.70. The diminution in picnic proceeds arises from the fact that we were unable to secure the gardens at the original favorable terms. In the direction of lectures and concerts we were very successful. Four lectures from the ever-popular Major Dane netted \$1,820.85, and two concerts swelled the treasury to the amount of \$600 more.

The Society has met from the very beginning of its career with the utmost kindness from the school directors, parents, and friends of our public-school system. The gratifying results as seen in the quoted figures prove this conclusively. A most excellent and necessary section in the rules and regulations of the San Francisco public-school department is one forbidding the sale without special permission of tickets of any kind to the pupils. Upon application by our board of directors a prompt granting of such permit is ever made in a most cordial manner. While, as our records show, we have ever presented our entertainments in the best possible manner, securing for our picnics the best grounds to be obtained, and presenting at our concerts and lectures talent ranking among the highest obtainable, we have ever kept before us one idea—that is, to secure the best lecturer, the most pleasing singer, at good rates, for they are worth it, but steadily maintain popular prices. As a result, the 30,000 students in our department are our personal friends and co-workers in this good cause. We never yet have failed to provide them with a merry picnic day under excellent supervision, or a delightful evening replete with enjoyment and instruction. The most pleasing feature to the advocate of popular prices as he glances round our concert or lecture-room is the two apparent facts: that yonder group of parents, and,

perchance, little ones, is enabled to enjoy a rare treat, and that the immense audience acts as an incentive to the speaker or singer in a manner that nothing else will replace.

We are not supported by our initiation fees and dues, so that, until some thoughtful benefactor endows us with a goodly sum, that grand old main-spring of progress, earnest work, is absolutely needed on the part of the enthusiasts whom we certainly have aroused in this good cause.

Another glance within the pages of this tiny book that so tersely sets forth our line of action, and we find that section 4 of the by-laws controls the giving of sick benefits in this wise: "Every member in good standing in case of sickness or accident, rendering him or her unable to attend to business, shall receive the sum of \$10 per week, commencing not more than one week anterior to the date of being reported to the board or any of its members, until the sum of \$300 shall have been paid. After this sum, \$300, shall have been paid, he or she will receive the sum of \$5 per week at the pleasure of the Society. No member shall receive benefits during vacations while receiving his or her regular salary."

Our original initiation fee of \$2.50 was raised at the end of the first year to \$5, and again at the expiration of four years to the present rate of \$10. Although not yet bearing the right proportion to the very generous sick benefits of \$10 weekly, yet a large majority favor the present condition of things.

A life-membership is provided for by the following section: "All members who reside beyond the limits of the State of California, and such as give up the profession of teaching as their means of support, shall immediately sever their connection with the society, provided that such persons as shall have taught seven years while members of this society, in good standing, shall be entitled to continue their membership after they have ceased to be teachers: *provided*, that members in receipt of benefits who reside out of town shall communicate with the visiting committee, at least once in two weeks, under penalty of loss of benefits."

So much explanatory of our laws. Now let us see what we have accomplished in the task we set for ourselves: \$11,000 paid out in sick benefits is a good round sum in the aggregate; and what volumes are hidden within that ledger extract! To the young, ambitious teacher, working busily away in her class-room, cheered by the thought that her modest salary is doing oftentimes much more than to make her independent—that it is the medium by which a loving daughter may lighten the home-burdens of the dear ones, our aid society is indeed a godsend. When the physical nature gives way under the manifold duties, and the tired nerves demand a rest, she realizes to the fullest extent the scope of our grand work and renews her allegiance and redoubles her efforts to promote the best interests of our beloved organization. Efforts have been made to pay sick benefits for fractional parts of a week, but after spirited debates a strong feeling against the measure has prevailed and no action has been taken.

We number at present about 25 per cent. of the teachers of this city.

Although our growth perhaps may be considered hardly commensurate with true Western progress, yet it is one based upon a firm foundation. We have many staunch friends in the department outside of our ranks, who are with us in sympathy but who have not yet, for many excellent reasons, enrolled under our banner.

We have done more, however, during the last fifteen years than merely keep watch and guard over our treasury and those of our members who were ill. While we have ever kept our main object in view, and carefully avoided any lending of our influence to work other than that stated in our preamble, yet we have gained immeasurably in the way that we teachers need to gain. We have been obliged to come in close personal contact one with another during our various meetings as the weeks and months rolled on, and while there has been some friction—can you conceive the meeting of such positive bodies as teachers without more or less friction?—still by this means fast friendships have been cemented that never can be broken. A meeting of our board of directors is always a bustling scene of activity. During the five winter months of this year we averaged \$200 per month in sick benefits. These meetings are always the occasion of much pleasant interchange of thought, while the watchful eye of the presiding officer is momentarily off duty. The ringing gavel, however, produces order in a very short time, and the routine work is dispatched in an expeditious manner.

To-day we have about \$8,600 invested in the various city banks, and we confidently trust that the coming five years will witness a great increase in both our funds and membership.

During the last week we have been greatly interested in the accounts of similar societies in the Eastern cities. Some are much more comprehensive in their plan of organization than is ours. That of New York city, if we understood aright, pays pensions after a certain number of years in active service. Our motto is, progress; and possibly, if permitted, we might like to graft some of the new growths of the Eastern systems upon our vigorous home-tree. May we beg the favor of an interchange of constitution and by-laws from any one of our hearers knowing of aid societies throughout the length and breadth of the Union?

Although we are so small and unpretentious a wheel in this great piece of educational mechanism, and our little circuit wherein we quietly do the very simple bit of life-work that has fallen to our lot is an exceedingly circumscribed one, believe us that this work has brought to us as a society a vast deal of pleasure in meeting the grand army of fellow-teachers from beyond the Rockies, beyond the Father of Waters, beyond the Alleghanies, from the sunny shores of the Gulf to the far-off regions of dear old Maine.

Let us trust that the bonds of friendship formed during the last week may strengthen as the weeks roll on, and that the interchange of thought upon bettering in every direction our beloved public-school system may awaken rolling echoes in response to its grand song in every nook and corner of *christendom*.

*THE FIRST FREE SCHOOL IN CALIFORNIA.**

MR. HOITT, of California: I desire to introduce to this audience Col. Jonathan D. Stevenson, now nearly ninety years of age, who came to California in 1847 under a special commission from the President of the United States and the Secretary of War, at the head of Stevenson's regiment. In his regiment he brought six hundred and fifty sturdy sons of New England, under twenty-one years of age. He occupied for the Government what is now the State of California; and as he sent his officers and men abroad over the land, he strictly enjoined them above all things to look well to the school-house. He hired the first school-room here, and hired and paid the first public-school teacher in California, thus planting the American idea on our shores so many years ago. I regard it as a great honor to present him to you.

JONATHAN D. STEVENSON, of San Francisco: When I arrived in California there were but thirty shanties, (not even known as houses,) with but perhaps six substantial habitations among them, and there was not a vessel owned in the port that carried a yard of canvas. I brought with me from the East, in the first three ships, seven hundred and fifty men. Of these, six hundred were under twenty-one years of age. As by order of my superior officer, the Secretary of War, I distributed the various companies to their posts, I issued an order that the moment they were established a school should be opened and maintained. I was soon ordered from here to a locality known as the "Lower Country," and I found there a man who was a graduate of one of the highest departments in the State of New York, who was a volunteer soldier like myself. We organized two schools, one conducted in the English language and the other in Spanish. It was after my term of service, and when I came to San Francisco as a private citizen, that I met the first white teacher in San Francisco. He told me of a number of children that were idle, and asked if some provision could be made to found a school for them. I told him to hire a room and I would pay him for his services. He hired a room, I think at \$50 a month, which was soon filled, and a successful school conducted. As the city and the state were organized and established, all the influence I had was given to the advancement of public education. The greatest difficulty in the East then was to persuade people to accept these opportunities. The idea prevailed that it was a charity school. I can well remember that when I was a boy I felt indignant that I should be asked to go to a "free school." That feeling was strong in the breast of the people of New York, even up to the winter before I left for San Francisco. At that time I was on a committee to distribute outdoor charity. One of the regulations—and I think the act was passed by the common council—was, that outdoor charity should not be given to people who did not send their children

* Stenographer's report.

to a public school. Such, even to that day, was the prejudice against the public schools; and they could not understand, notwithstanding their fathers were taxed to pay its expenses, that it was not a "free school" in the old sense of a charity school.

But the California boys had no such prejudice. They took to it, and were glad to be educated, in any way and in any form. It was my great pride and pleasure to give what little aid I could to it. To-day I look around me and see active, intelligent, earnest representatives from every state in the Union where a public school is established, gathered in San Francisco in a great convention. Who could imagine such a wonderful change?—from a single room, twenty feet square, hired by an individual, and from a teacher paid by a private hand, to this great assemblage, in our great state, of representatives from a great people, who owe their greatness to the education they have received in the public schools of our land.

Fellow-citizens, I did not come here to address you. I came here to return my thanks to the gentlemen who kindly invited me to this place to catch a glimpse of this great spectacle. I am unable to say half I would like to say; but I have said enough to give you an understanding of how the public schools in California commenced. Like everything else in this state, it began with the penny. What it has become is evident to you all.

*REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.**

R. W. STEVENSON, CHAIRMAN.

JOHN W. BULKLEY.

JOHN W. BULKLEY, A.M., was born November 3d, 1802, in the town of Fairfield, Connecticut, and died at his own home, in Brooklyn, N. Y., June 19th, 1888.

His early education was, for the most part, received in Connecticut. Having prepared himself to enter the Sophomore class of Hamilton College, with a view of entering the ministry, his health failed, and he was obliged to seek means of recuperation in a sea-voyage, which resulted favorably. But like most New England young men, he was induced to enter, temporarily, upon the work of teaching, in which he met with satisfactory success. Finding the employment congenial, and agreeable to his health and purpose of life, he continued in the work successfully in his own state for a short period. But in the meantime he made special effort to prepare himself thoroughly for the profession, by diligently studying the various systems and methods of teaching in those early days—meager, at the best. But by

*For the notice of the life of Israel W. Andrews, see page 266.

his mental vigor, high purpose, and unflagging perseverance, he became distinguished as a teacher.

From 1832 to 1838 he was at the head of the profession in Troy, N. Y. He was then called to take the principalship of a new grammar school in Albany, N. Y. While laboring there in his new field with marked success, he was especially instrumental in aiding to originate and organize the first teachers' association in New York, in 1845, and was made its first president. This association gave birth to the first teachers' journal in the United States. He was the chairman of its board of editors for years.

During this successful period of his life, the degree of A. M. was conferred upon him by Hamilton College in honor of his valuable work in the cause of education.

In 1851 he was called to take the principalship of a large school in Williamsburgh, N. Y., which is now school No. 19 in Brooklyn, N. Y. His success in this school led to his appointment as the first city superintendent of the combined schools of Brooklyn and Williamsburgh. He was also made principal of the Saturday Normal School, which he was instrumental in organizing. He entered upon his duties as superintendent in 1855, and continued in that capacity as chief until 1873, and afterwards as assistant until 1885, a period of thirty years. During this period, and chiefly through his wise administration and his enlightened zeal, the schools of Brooklyn gained their high standing. Mr. Bulkley was one of the originators of the National Educational Association and its first secretary under the constitution, and was elected its president in 1860. His educational papers and addresses and his labors have been of a high order, and they bear witness to his high and honorable character.

He was a pure, prudent, temperate and consistent Christian man, which so conduced to his preservation that he was able to come down to a green old age and be gathered peacefully home to the heavenly abode for which he was prepared from his youth.

JAMES JAHONNOT.*

James Jahonnot was born in Bethel, Vermont, March 3, 1823, and died at Tapon, Florida, June 18, 1888. His father was of French descent. The family moved to Syracuse, N. Y., about the year 1844, and for a year James was employed as a salt-boiler. He had taught a country school in Vermont, and in 1845 he was made principal of Jefferson school, then held in rented rooms in Syracuse. He soon after entered the Albany Normal School, from which he was graduated in 1848. He then returned to his school in Syracuse. There, Mr. Jahonnot, with others, started a newspaper called the *Literary Union*. Some of the utterances of the editors were regarded as infidel in their tendencies. He lost his position as a teacher in consequence. The publication of the paper ended after a brief but brilliant career. Mr.

* We are indebted for the facts and much of the language of this notice to The School Bulletin.

Jahonnot was so impressed with the educational ideas of Dio Lewis, who was then traveling over the country, that he organized a class. The enterprise was a financial failure.

He then became an agent of D. Appleton & Co., and continued in this work until 1854, when he was elected by the State Teachers' Association the first state agent, at a salary of \$1,000. His duties were to assist in organizing teachers' institutes, report on school systems, encourage union schools, awaken a general school interest, assist and coöperate with the state superintendent, assist teachers in getting positions and schools in obtaining suitable teachers, and perform such duties as the officers of the State Association might direct. On account of the expense, the State Association abolished the office the succeeding year. In 1857, Mr. Jahonnot became associated with Dr. French in the preparation of the State Map and Gazetteer. He was known as a special student of physical geography. After this work was completed, in 1860, he went to Joliet, Illinois, as principal of the high school. He was a bold and outspoken Abolitionist, and on account of his sentiments was not a favorite of the pro-slavery men; so he retired. He afterward became interested in a company that was to supersede steam, of which he was secretary. In it he lost all his money.

In 1872 he was appointed principal of the State Normal School, at Warrensburg, Missouri. His religious views were the cause of his giving up this position. Returning to New York, he became, in 1875, principal of the school at Deposit, but after one year gave up the place and went to Ithaca. He was soon called into institute-work, and when the first regular institute corps was created, he was one of the four. He removed to Princeton, N. J., where his son-in-law, a professor, resided. He continued to conduct institutes long after the asthma had made it almost impossible for him to speak. His vitality was remarkable, and he prided himself on accomplishing more than most well men would undertake at a time when others hardly thought it worth while to exist.

Mr. Jahonnot was a prolific and successful author. His first work was on physical geography, and was written at Syracuse. The manuscript was unfortunately burned. It was reproduced, but not published. Appleton's geographies were almost entirely his work. He was also associated with Prof. Krüse in the publication of a series of drawing-books. The first book that bore his name was his "School Houses," published in 1871. His next book was "Principles and Practice of Teaching," which has been quite successful. It has been translated into Spanish, and there are two independent Japanese translations.

For the last eight years his main work has been put upon a series of supplementary readers of various designations, including "Cats and Dogs, and Other Friends;" "Friends in Feathers and Fur;" "Neighbors with Wings and Fins;" "Neighbors with Claws and Hoofs;" "The Animate World;" "Geographical Reader;" "Stories of Heroic Deeds;" and "Stories of Other Lands." These have all been illustrated, and are beautiful and useful books.

The last few years he has spent in pursuit of health.

He was by nature a radical, and very outspoken. He always gave his sentiments strong expression. He stood by his principles and stood by his friends.

He was tall, slim, straight, with a pair of blue eyes which were greatly admired by all who ever saw him. He was a very handsome man.

His death is deeply regretted by his host of friends.

GUSTAVUS J. ORR.

Hon. GUSTAVUS J. ORR, LL. D., State School Commissioner of Georgia, died at his home in Atlanta, on Sunday, December 11, 1887.

He was born of Scotch-Irish stock and of distinguished Revolutionary ancestry, at Orrville, Anderson county, South Carolina, on August 9, 1819. He was brought up from early childhood in Jackson county, Georgia, and was educated at Maryville, Tenn., at the State University and Emory College. At all he was distinguished, mastering more Latin and Greek in eighteen months at Maryville than most boys do throughout a college course. At Athens he led his class, although the late Senator Hill was a member of it; and at Oxford he graduated with the second honor, although the first man in the class. His short stay at that institution did not permit his taking the first honor, under the rules then in force. When the honors were awarded, the President, Dr. Longstreet, publicly announced the facts just stated.

After graduation he read law with Basil H. Overby, at the town of Jefferson, Jackson county. At this time he married, going for his bride to the very spot where he had been born. The lady chosen by him was his cousin, Miss Eliza C. Anderson, the daughter of Dr. William Anderson, a physician of wide note in his day, and a successful planter as well. They were loving companions for forty years, lacking less than a month. Of the ten children born to them, four died in infancy.

After marrying, young Orr turned aside, for a season as he thought, from his chosen profession, and commenced teaching at Jefferson. Thereafter he taught at Covington, his wife assisting him, and was twice chosen professor at Emory College. The first time he declined, but finally gave his consent to abandon his chosen pursuit, refusing at the time a partnership with Judge John J. Floyd, a lawyer of great ability and of wide practice.

At Emory College he made a marked success. He remained there for seventeen years, and taught more than sixty ministers, and as many each of physicians and lawyers, and over ninety teachers. Among the ministers are numbered bishops and others of great prominence, and among other pupils are United States Senators, Congressmen, judges, and legislators. When Dr. Orr entered upon the work of establishing the common-school system of

Georgia, he was greatly aided by the fact that he had in every legislature a number of old pupils who, with hardly an exception, ably supported him.

After filling for four years the Presidency of the Southern Masonic Female College, at Covington, Dr. Orr, although a member of the Methodist church, was chosen Professor of Mathematics (his old chair) in Oglethorpe University, an institution under the control of the Presbyterian church. Here, he succeeded; and from this place he was called to the position of State School Commissioner, where he did the crowning work of his life. He was the first mover on the line of the education of the masses, and he drafted nearly all the laws on the subject on the statute book and for nearly sixteen years administered them. He is the father of the common-school system of Georgia. He has had immense difficulties to overcome, and he had to work for years almost single-handed. No work was ever more nearly the work of one man. He was instant, in season and out of season, and his life was shortened by his intense and never-ceasing labors. He thought and read and spoke and wrote for the education of the masses, white and black; made many addresses, some being before Northern audiences, and always from a Southern standpoint. Yet he never failed to captivate his hearers. He was the first mover in the South in favor of national aid to education, and was frequently put forward to address committees of Congress on the subject. This he did with ability, and he has been quoted on the floor of the United States Senate in terms of eulogy. He could always talk to the colored people without flattery, and yet to their utmost delight and to the satisfaction of all right-thinking men of his own race.

As a Christian his character was marked by a simple, consistent faith in Christ. He had the peace which flows like a river, and for the last twenty-eight years of his life his spiritual sky was almost, if not entirely, without a cloud. He expressed himself on all proper occasions, yet was singularly modest and never seemed to entertain a high opinion of his Christian excellence. He joined the Methodist Church in early life, and died in that communion. He was reared by Presbyterian parents, his father being an elder in that church for many years. Owing to his early training and to the further fact that his wife and some of his children were members of that church, Dr. Orr always entertained a very strong affection for the Presbyterian Church, and went to her services with great regularity.

Nor was his love limited to his own church and to the church of his wife and his parents; he loved the followers of Christ of whatever name. Among his intimate friends were many leading members of the Baptist and other denominations. Such a man belongs to no church, save the Church of Christ.

His home-life was well-nigh perfect. In childhood and early manhood he was a dutiful son and an affectionate brother, and he so remained always. As a husband he was, through twoscore years, tender and loving. As a father, no man ever more wisely mingled firm parental control with the utmost kindness. His authority was well-nigh absolute, yet it was so kind

that his children were almost unconscious of its exercise. He was a man whom the public regarded with confidence, his friends with affection, and his family with devotion. "Mark the perfect man and behold the upright; for the end of that man is peace."

JAMES S. ROLLINS.

The subject of this sketch was born at Richmond, Madison county, Kentucky, April 19, 1812. Young Rollins commenced an academic course at Richmond Academy, from which he entered the Sophomore class at Washington College, Pennsylvania. At the close of the Junior year he went to the State University of Indiana, at Bloomington, from which he was graduated in 1830. After graduating he moved to Missouri, and took up his residence in the county of Boone. Here he spent a year with his father on the farm, after which he read law two years in the office of Abiel Leonard. He also spent two years in the Transylvania Law School, at Lexington, Kentucky, graduating in the spring of 1834. He immediately began the practice of law at Columbia, Boone county.

In 1836 Mr. Rollins became one of the editors of a Whig journal under the title of the *Columbia Patriot*. He was chairman of a committee appointed by the first railroad convention of the state, and drafted the first memorial to Congress asking a grant of land to aid in commencing the system of internal improvements proposed by the convention.

Mr. Rollins was married in 1837, and was the father of eleven children. His oldest son, Captain James H. Rollins, is a member of the ordnance corps, United States Army.

Mr. Rollins was an earnest and ardent Whig of the school of Clay and Webster. He entered public life at the early age of twenty-six, and soon distinguished himself as the able advocate of popular education. Then he led the cause of education west of the Mississippi river. His beneficent views were far in advance of those of all his fellows.

Mr. Rollins, comprehending the spirit of education and its future growth in the new land of liberty, true to that spirit of progress destined to secure the intellectual redemption of the republic, gave a full measure of his talents and official position to give the people of his state the advantages of a good education. He was the Horace Mann of his state in educational progress. He was the founder of the educational system of Missouri. In 1857 Mr. Rollins was nominated by the Whigs for governor, but was defeated. In 1860 he was nominated for Congress, and elected. In Congress he advocated ably the agricultural college bill. He has earnestly advocated ever since the policy of devoting every acre of the public land remaining unsold to the education of the children of the different states, reserving the rights of the homestead and the preëmption. He was the author of the important bill to aid in constructing a railroad and telegraph line from the Missouri

river to the Pacific ocean, and to secure to the Government the use of the same for postal, military and other purposes. Under this bill were constructed the Union Pacific, Kansas Pacific, and Central Pacific railroads. He was reelected to the Thirty-eighth Congress, and continued to be the earnest and able supporter of the Government. He was the sincere friend of President Lincoln.

In 1866 he was again called to represent Boone county in the Legislature. During this and the following session he devoted himself mainly to revising the laws of the state, to place them in harmony with the new constitution which had been adopted in 1865. He coöperated earnestly with other friends of education in perfecting the common-school system of the state, and in placing on a firm foundation the State University. He was the author and advocate of the bill, which after great opposition became a law, establishing a Normal Department in connection with the University, and also appropriating one and three-fourths per cent. of the state revenue annually to the support and maintenance of the State University. He also introduced the bill which established the Agricultural and Mechanical College as a department of the University. It is said that Mr. Rollins was the author of every bill which has established, endowed and maintained the University. For many years he was President of the Board of Curators, and gave a large portion of his time to advancing still further the best interests of the institution of which Missouri is so proud. At a regular meeting of the Board of Curators the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, The long-continued services of Hon. James S. Rollins, commencing thirty-four years ago in the introduction of a bill by him in the House of Representatives of the General Assembly of this State, providing for the location of the State University, and the various measures since that time of which he has been the author and earnest and able advocate, terminating with the act passed at the last session of the Legislature, making provision for the payment of the debts of the institution, enlarging its library, completing the scientific building, and adding to its permanent endowment, deserve a proper recognition and acknowledgment by this Board: be it therefore

Resolved, That this Board are deeply impressed with the value of the important services rendered by Hon. J. S. Rollins, and other friends of education, in placing the University of Missouri upon a solid and permanent foundation, where the youth of the state may enjoy equal advantages for higher education with the youths of other states of the Union.

Second, That he has won the honorable title of "*Pater Universitatis Missouriensis*," and that the thanks of this Board are hereby tendered to him for his great efforts to promote the prosperity, usefulness and success of this institution.

Third, That the secretary of this Board cause to be prepared in some suitable form a copy of the foregoing resolutions, signed by the vice-president and secretary, and with the seal of the University attached, and presented to the Hon. James S. Rollins in the name of that Board.

In private life, Mr. Rollins was charitable and sociable, and was a leader in all plans for the welfare and prosperity of the community in which he

lived. Of all distinguished men who have shed luster upon the State of Missouri, whether born within or without the boundaries of the state, none has a better record. He was an honored member of the National Educational Association, and deeply interested in its welfare. His death is an irreparable loss to his state and to the cause of education in general.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TERMINOLOGY.

[DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION.]

The report submitted to you to-day consists of a concurrence in the report of the committee on the same subject appointed by the Music Teachers' National Association, with which we were directed by you to confer. That committee asked further time, and they were by vote continued for another year. Your committee would suggest, since the committee of the Music Teachers' National Association have laid out a large work to be done by them in the future, that this committee be continued, or another appointed to perform the same office.

The first question the committee had to consider was the direction in which its efforts could most profitably be employed, and it decided that no other matter was of more immediate importance to the progress of musical education, nor seemed to call for more earnest effort in effecting improvements therein, than the state of confusion in which the subject of musical notation is at present involved. Your committee was so deeply impressed with the importance of this subject that it decided to seek out the broadest platform possible on which to base its investigations—a platform which could stand any test to which it might be subjected. This involved the necessity of getting behind the question of notation itself, and making a practical application in music of the fundamental principles underlying and governing the proper teaching of all subjects. The first principles of which we have to avail ourselves may be briefly indicated by the following questions:

1. What are the things to be taught?
2. How shall they be named?
3. How shall they be presented?

The things to be taught in music, then, are tune and time, recognized in their simplest form by the units or whole things, the major scale and the measure. The next step is to decide how these things shall be presented to the eye. And on this point your committee asks to be allowed more time in which to formulate a detailed report.

While the committee desires to record its recognition and appreciation of the great amount of good that has been accomplished through the medium of various systems of notation, notably the Tonic Sol-fa, it is convinced that

no system, whatever merits it may possess for special uses and anomalous conditions of things, can ever supersede the general use of the staff notation. Your committee also desires to emphasize with all possible earnestness its conviction that while systems of notation may be imperfect, and some are infinitely less desirable than others, it is in the *manner of teaching* far more than in the representation of the thing taught, that we should first seek for reform and improvement.

The foremost educators of the country are now realizing the importance of having the most talented and skillfully-trained teachers for the primary schools. The proper training in music in the public schools is the most valuable preparation for all subsequent study in any department of a musical education. The committee would urge most strongly a special and thorough preparation by those who would undertake this work. The time has come when the director of music in public schools must be more than a musician, or a teacher of music. He must be acquainted with educational principles and methods as applied in teaching other subjects. The teacher in our public schools who has qualified himself to teach but one subject, whether that subject be mathematics, anatomy, music, or anything else, must of necessity be considered by educators narrow and of small resources, if not absolutely poor and superficial. No teacher of music should consider himself fully prepared to undertake the instructing and directing of the regular teachers in this work in music, until the lessons shall be of such general educational value that the principles involved in them may be applied with equal force in the teaching of any other subject.

When this standard is reached by the average music teacher (and it is not a difficult one when sought in the right direction) the confusion which now exists regarding the various notations used will gradually disappear, and our present staff-notation will take its proper place in relation to the thing itself, music.

The above report was signed by Edward Fisher, William Mason, Frederic W. Root, and H. E. Holt, and we concur in the same.

Respectfully submitted.

O. BLACKMAN,
H. E. HOLT,
N. COE STEWART,
Committee.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EXHIBITION.

To Aaron Gove, President of the National Educational Association—SIR:
We, the undersigned, appointed by you a general committee to report on the Educational Exposition, beg leave to report, that owing to the limited time remaining after the announcement of our appointment, we were unable to secure a sufficiently large corps of assistant sub-committees whose leisure

permitted them to serve. Moreover, the time that remained to the sub-committees for them to prepare memoranda for their reports was necessarily still more limited.

In consequence of these embarrassments, this report lacks necessary details and the sub-committees do not cover all portions of the exhibit in their reports, although they have done the work efficiently so far as they have undertaken it. The omissions are due to a failure in securing additional sub-committees, equally well qualified, to undertake the inspection and to finish the reports on the exhibits that are not mentioned in this report.

As in former exhibitions of school-work, beginning with that at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia, and even the excellent one at the Cotton Centennial in New Orleans, it is apparent that most of the work that is done in the school is of such a character that no exhibit can be made of it in the manner and methods devised in an exposition.

As the true work of the school aims first to develop in the pupil his power to think, and secondly, his power to use instrumentalities, it follows that examination-papers and original theses, inventions of designs in the arts and manufactures, commercial combinations, agricultural devices and literary works, will best show what education accomplishes that is of primary value; while in the secondary rank of reproducing from models of works of art and literature, displaying proficiency in sciences mastered and in arts practiced, there exist better means for showing what is accomplished. But without the presence of the pupils and their teachers, and the schools themselves, it is clear that very much is left out that is necessary to an exposition that shall exhibit the work of schools.

But there are phases of school-work whose function it is to put on paper what is to be seen at a glance, or prepare material objects by giving them shape and elaboration. Such phases can be exhibited with decided effect. It is manifest that our educational exhibits are tending toward the display of these phases of school-work to the neglect of all others.

Penmanship, map-drawing, freehand drawing, line-drawing, painting, embroidery, modeling in clay, kindergarten "occupations" (with their plaiting, embroidery, and modeling), fill up more space, and examination papers, compositions and such matters appear in less quantity.

A serious difficulty lay in the way of a great exposition in California. Two thousand miles of transportation by railroad even for the cities of the Mississippi Valley and the Lakes, and a thousand miles more for the cities of the Atlantic slope, prevented such widespread and general competition as had been found at Philadelphia and New Orleans, or at Madison and Chicago. California alone undertook an extensive exhibit of the work of her schools collected from the several counties of her vast extent, and the State of Oregon nobly supported her in the same line. To the visitors from the East the Exposition was very interesting on account of this feature. All wished to see what the schools of the Pacific Coast were doing so far as could

be inferred from the work submitted to inspection. That the Pacific Coast did itself great credit, is the general verdict. It is noteworthy, too, that in the Exposition, as well as everywhere else in the great convention, Californians showed themselves eminently generous and hospitable. The slender exhibit that came from the East and Central Plain of the nation did not afford them an opportunity to see as much or to learn as much as they had hoped to do from the Exposition. But few complaints were heard, and many words of praise were lavished on what came to them from abroad.

In speaking of the exhibit from the East as slender, your committee refers to the few cities and states that sent anything, and to the lack of variety in what was sent.

Manual-training and technical schools, and especially the branch of study known in our schools as freehand drawing and industrial training, did their teachers great credit. It was a great good fortune to those interested in these educational movements to see Professor C. M. Woodward, of St. Louis, on hand in person, and to hear him explain his exhibit in his clear and impressive manner. It was an opportunity to see the deservedly famous founder of the wide-spreading system of manual-training schools. Professor John M. Ordway, of Tulane University, New Orleans, a distinguished laborer in the field of technical education, was also present at the Exposition and kindly assisted our committee with a report on some of the items of his specialty.

Considering the great importance of the apparatus of instruction,—such matters as school furniture, text-books, and means of illustration,—we report with pleasure that the exhibit from this source was creditable to those who took part in it, and no feature of the Exposition was more instructive to those visitors who came from remote districts where the newest and best models had not yet been seen. We must express regret, too, that more publishers and manufacturers of furniture and apparatus did not exhibit. Such an occasion, moreover, ought to have drawn out models and plans of school buildings, heating and ventilating apparatus, and the approved methods of lighting school-rooms from the left side and the back of the pupils. What our expositions lack in value because they fail to show first-class results in developing the thinking power of the pupil, is more than made up in this part of the exhibition by a display of apparatus, text-books, and model buildings.

The kindergarten, whose work is easily represented, formed a large feature in the exposition. San Francisco is one of the foremost cities in the land in the good work of extending and perfecting the kindergarten. This high position is due to a number of very skillful and devoted ladies who have labored untiringly and harmoniously to make the cause prosper on the Pacific Coast.

The cause of industrial drawing is in the ascendant, and it richly deserves it. In American arts and manufactures there is abundant ingenuity and *technical skill*. It is the lack of æsthetic taste which prevents American

manufactures from making their way abroad in competition with the rival commodities of France and Great Britain. The old maxim, "de gustibus non est disputandum," is not true as an ethical mandate nor as a dictate of practical common sense. Works of art and ornament that shall command the markets of the world must pay their respects to the standard of the beautiful set up by the Greeks for all the world. Other standards may win a temporary vogue in this or that province, but they will not hold their own in different epochs, nor in many provinces of the world-market at any one time. The reason for this has been often demonstrated in works on the philosophy of art. The Greek nationality alone, among all historic peoples, made a religion of the beautiful, and his definition of the beautiful may be expressed in our language as *the representation of freedom in material forms*. Inanimate matter is caused to assume the form of the living body; it is made to conform to some inner purpose or design as though a soul dwelt in it and used this body of matter for the expression of its designs and the attainment of its purposes. The appearance of mathematical regularity and symmetry is the lowest order of the beautiful, a beauty that soon becomes tiresome to the spectator. In the teaching of drawing throughout the country there is evidently too much stress laid upon the two lower steps in art, the production of regularity and symmetry. It should pass through these steps only on the way to the third step, the expression of harmony. Harmony alone, as something above the laws of regularity and symmetry, is the step that expresses the Greek standard. It alone expresses freedom. Harmony uses regularity and symmetry and subordinates them to the expression of purpose and design. It makes a unity of its ornament by making all its parts show an adaptation to the purpose of the soul within the work of art. For the artist endows matter with a soul. Just as the poet personifies and animates nature, so the artist personifies wood and mineral substances and makes them take on the semblance of life and free movement for the accomplishment of purpose. Around a vessel made of potter's clay, or wood, or metal, there coils a vine, choosing its path upward toward the light, but stopping at intervals more or less capricious to expand into symmetrical leaves, blossoms, and fruit. Around a vase are represented groups of joyful youth in action or in repose—a glimpse of the eternal spring-time of life. The vase itself in its contours spurns the simple geometric forms of the cube, the cylinder, or the globe, and soars away from these as though moved by a vital impulse from within to produce the oval or primitive life-form, and, not content with this, in the form of repose, it adds oval to oval, antithetically. It plays with lower forms in order to express its perfect freedom and spontaneity. It moves outward on an oval line and then inward again as though to close its egg-form, but changing its purpose it expands again in a reversed oval. It then stops suddenly and girds itself as though with some external cincture. But it plays only with this symbol of outward constraint, and manifests its freedom by escaping from its bonds and returning to its own chosen symbol, the oval. Thus the work of art expresses

freedom. Man in all his races and conditions loves freedom and the expression of it. But the civilized races far surpass the savages in their appreciation of the highest order of the beautiful. The savage does not get much beyond a taste for what is regular, like a string of beads, in mathematical shapes. The next step above gets so far as to admire symmetry. Not finding the human body entirely symmetrical, he thinks to increase its beauty by tattooing symmetrical figures on it. In his images of his gods he makes them symmetrical by adding a face to the back side of the head, and placing another pair of arms at the back, etc. With the insight into harmony, the nude human body becomes beautiful just as the Greeks modeled it. It must express action or the intention to act. Even the seated figures of Phidias have all their limbs under control and are apparently just on the point of action. Every limb is thus subordinated to the internal purpose, and this is the beautiful.

Industrial art sets out with the laudable purpose to educate its pupils so that they may make our manufactures more salable by tasteful ornament. It is evident that more must be done in the direction of educating the ideals of taste, first. The pupils must not be kept on lessons in regularity and symmetry, as though any high order of the beautiful could be achieved in these. We shall never command the markets of the world by adding such ornament to our goods. The soul of civilized man loaths mere repetition, or mere symmetry. Only the Chinese taste can endure the monotonous music of a tin pan through a whole day. The cultivated races love to see gracefulness of shape in their materials for food, clothing, and shelter, and in all their implements. Gracefulness is that appearance of freedom which we have already discussed. The soul in its depths feels its freedom, and loves to see this heaven-born attribute revealed in external shapes and forms. This is the significance of the beautiful. Things must seem to be for themselves, and not merely for usefulness for others. We do not like to see vulgar use stamped on the most useful objects even; but we must feed our eyes with the appearance of self-activity and freedom as a sort of reminder that we are immortal souls, and not the slaves of our bodies, selling our heavenly birthrights for a mess of pottage, and toiling in thralldom for food, clothing, and shelter.

These reasons for the beautiful seem very transcendental and impractical to our average educational reformers. They think that children "should be taught to earn their livings by acquiring skill in carpenter-work and blacksmithing." Their mistake would be obvious if it were not serious. "Production," said one of our most able economists, Mr. David A. Wells, in 1884, "was never so great in this nation in relation to population as it has been in this last year of depression and war. The East is glutted with goods and wares; the West with stock and meat; the Middle States are crowded with coal and iron; the South with cotton and grain; and each section has all that the world needs. We are producing far more than we consume, and manufacturing far more commodities than we can dispose of." *Wells*

could put more taste into our manufactures—employ fewer people in raising the raw materials, and fewer in making coarse goods, and more in producing a finer quality of ornament—the balance would be restored. As it is, only one-twelfth of our laboring population are engaged in the wood-working and metal-working trades. In the twenty-five trades that belong to wood-working and in the twenty-two trades that belong to metal-work, there were in 1880 1,349,307 laborers. These provide more goods than we can sell at home and abroad. We cannot get and hold foreign markets unless we put more real taste into our ornament.

This is the practical question. We have heard much of the Swedish education in wood-work. But when we have seen specimens of the productions of Swedish schools, the impractical character of that education has become obvious. The Swedish youth need precisely what our youth need, and what the youth of France and Belgium actually receive—education in real industrial art. Such wood-work as the Swedes make cannot command the market of the world like the productions of France and Belgium. In our great commercial year, 1881 (see report of Treasury Department, Foreign Commerce, 1881), we imported from Sweden only \$137 worth of wooden manufactures, counting cabinet-wares, house furniture, and various other manufactures of wood. But we imported nearly a thousand times as much of this commodity from Belgium. As an amazing fact in contrast to this, in that same year we imported from Sweden and Norway nearly \$40,000 worth of rags! In that year, too, we supplied our home market for wooden manufactures, except an importation amounting to a million and a half, and exported \$18,600,312 worth. We imported, also, from Sweden, \$744,020 worth of iron in bar-iron, pig-iron, and old scrap-iron, buying it merely as raw material. But we purchased less than one-sixth that amount of manufactured iron and steel in that year from Sweden and Norway, not finding Swedish taste in manufactures to our liking. These are facts to be pondered by those among our people who pride themselves on having discovered the word “practical” as something opposed to the ideals of the soul.

We have dwelt at much length on this defect in our industrial art education, because the exhibits at San Francisco indicated no improvement over former exhibits in this respect.

We append hereto ten special reports on various features of the exposition.

The aim of your committee was to procure estimates of that part of the work which formed the chief feature of the exposition from competent persons in attendance from different parts of the country, in order, if possible, to reflect all the standards of judgment prevailing. Had we succeeded in securing all the committees that we desired, we believe that the value of this method would be apparent.

Respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS.

GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD.

LANGDON S. THOMPSON.

REPORT ON THE GENERAL ARRANGEMENTS AND MANAGEMENT OF THE EXPOSITION.

JOSEPH O'CONNOR, SAN FRANCISCO, GENERAL DIRECTOR.

I have wondered a hundred times during the past year why some one of the directors of former expositions had not thought of making such a report of his arduous labors as would have rendered the labors of his successors less arduous. We of San Francisco thought, that by communicating with the director of the exposition held at Chicago in 1887, we should at once find out how the thing was done; but, although he was very obliging, we soon discovered that we could not, as he did, place the different departments of the work under the direction of able lieutenants, for the reason that this city is not, like Chicago, an educational center, and the lieutenants had not this sort of experience and were not within easy reach. I felt, therefore, that we must do everything *ab initio*. Other people had decided that we must have an exposition: it became the duty of the Exposition Committee to make it a success.

The gentleman first appointed to superintend the arrangements declined to serve, after having taken some preliminary steps, on the ground that his health was unequal to the strain; and after repeated urging, I agreed to find a committee that would attend to the matter. The Executive Committee, however, insisted that I should act as Director, and gave me authority to name my committee.

All these changes caused delay, and our first general circular, inclosed, giving the objects and plan of the Exposition, was not issued until January 31st.

If space will permit, I respectfully urge that circulars 1, 2, 5 and 6 be published for the information of those on whom may devolve the task of organizing the N. E. Expositions of the future.* This is, however, partly provided for by the general instructions given on page 8 of the official bulletin.

I would advise those who undertake the arrangement of the Exposition to start early, to send out their own instructions by circular (and not wait for the official bulletin), and to give the utmost attention to the allotment of space.

It is very singular that the most successful teachers of the country -- as I presume the exhibitors must have been -- should in at least four cases out of five be mistaken either as to the space required for the articles to be exhibited, or mistaken regarding the measurements of that space. I thought when we gave full instructions relative to mountings, the dimensions of our tables, the proportions of rack and flat space, the area corresponding to every

*See appendix to this report.

running foot of table, etc., and finally published a cut of the exhibition table (with measurements), that we had done almost everything possible to render the space question clear; but, as I say, for every one who understood there were at least four who did not.

The transportation of exhibits should be under the charge of the Exposition Committee, or of a special committee.

OBJECT AND QUALITY.

President Gove having instructed us that the exhibit was purely a local affair, we made bold to announce that "the objects of the Exposition are (1) to disseminate such information relative to school-work and school laws and regulations in all sections of the country as will enable the visitor to justly appreciate the present status and future possibilities of education in the United States; and (2) to give teachers an opportunity to see and adopt whatever they may consider an improvement upon their accustomed methods."

And, referring to the material which should be sent to the Common-School Departments, I said: "The main object will be to show the progress from year to year."

In San Francisco all schools were required to make "exhibits of work done during the present school year"; and it was ordered that "the work presented must be the original papers or a first copy thereof," and that it must represent "the subjects mentioned in the Course of Study."

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT.

The Mechanics' Pavilion, in which the Exposition was held, is an immense barn-shaped building. The width of the main floor, under the arch, is 100 feet (entire width 222 feet), and the length of the main hall, lower floor, is 326 feet. This space, running east and west, is, on the second floor, inclosed by the galleries in which the main portion of the exhibition was placed. The galleries measure as follows: Art gallery, south side, 300 by 50 feet; open gallery, north side, 400 by 50 feet; gallery, east side, 180 by 40 feet; gallery, west side, 200 by 68 feet; and promenade gallery, 800 by 16 feet.

The kindergarten exhibits, except when forming a portion of primary-school work, were arranged along the south, west and north sides (outside line) of the promenade. Next in order, beginning at the west end and running north and east, came the graded primary work, including kindergarten work of primary schools. The exhibits of this section were furnished almost entirely by San Francisco, and at least to me prove beyond question the practicability of introducing the kindergarten games and exercises in the primary classes of the public schools. Next in order on the same line of commencement were placed the exhibits (graded) of the grammar and high schools. The entire northern gallery was occupied by the county exhibits—chiefly ungraded—of California, and by work belonging to the common-school departments of other states.

Exhibits were sent from the following states: Massachusetts, New York, Missouri, Michigan, Minnesota, Illinois, Oregon, Nevada, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, Kansas, Florida, Washington Territory.

Of the fifty-two counties of California, twenty-five furnished exhibits. Fifty-seven of the San Francisco schools were well represented, namely, thirty-eight primary, sixteen grammar, two high, and one evening—all, in fact, except a few outlying ungraded schools. One hundred and three exhibits were sent from public and seven from private schools.

There were also twenty-five exhibits of text-books, reference-books, apparatus, etc., from the leading educational publishing-houses of the United States. Some of the exhibits of school-furniture and appliances were very fine.

Outside of California, with a few exceptions, notably Illinois and Nevada, the contributions ran to specialties, and the exhibits did not show as clearly as they should the work done in the primary, grammar and high schools, and the progress of the common-school pupil from year to year. In our own schools, too, the weak desire to please the eye by artistic work not a part of the every-day business of the class was plainly apparent.

In spite of these defects, which I deem it my duty to point out, the general verdict that reached us was, that in orderly arrangement and completeness the Exposition of 1888 excelled all previous ones.

The entire south side of the building was occupied by the Art, Industrial and Scientific departments.

With three exceptions these exhibits, of the highest order of excellence, came from without California, and were it not for the excellent exhibit from Oregon, and the exhibits from the Oakland schools (all departments) and from the San Francisco evening and high schools (two), I would say that the teachers of the Pacific Coast seem to be unaware that a new departure is taking place in educational thought and methods, that drawing—real industrial drawing—will soon be as much a necessity as penmanship, and that the students of the manual-training schools (if their general education be not neglected in the eagerness to embrace the new ideas) must have the first chances in an energetic manufacturing and commercial nation such as this country is certain, in the near future, to become—in fact, is fast becoming.

AWARDS.

The report of the Committee on Awards renders it unnecessary for me to particularize regarding the comparative merits of the different exhibits.

The regulations, as published in the Official Bulletin, provided that “a prize of \$500, with diploma, will be awarded to the state or territory, other than California, making the best exhibit in accordance with the general classification. Basis of award: (1) quality; (2) variety; (3) completeness of exhibit.”

“The exhibits from technical and manual-training schools will be com-

pared with one another, and a separate prize of \$200 will be awarded to the institution which makes the best exhibit in this department."

"Unless where industrial exhibits are sent from state universities or other public schools, they will not be considered a factor in state competition."

Under these conditions the \$500 prize was divided between Missouri and Massachusetts,—\$300 to the former and \$200 to the latter; the prize of \$200 was awarded to the Manual-Training School of Washington University, St. Louis. Special diplomas were awarded to Illinois (with special mention of the Training Department of the Cook County Normal School), to Oregon, and to the Woman's Institute of Technical Design, New York.

I presume the full report of the Committee on Awards has been forwarded to headquarters. I have not seen it, and the foregoing may be inaccurate, as it was made out from memory by a member of the committee.

I would recommend that future juries be arranged to consist of one member for each department, that they be appointed by the National Executive Committee or by the heads of the departments represented in the Exposition, and that the appointment be made early enough to give the committee time to carefully examine the work. It should be entirely unnecessary to remind exhibitors of the impropriety of attempting to influence the jury.

Most of the visitors considered the opportunity afforded by the examination of the Exposition the most valuable feature, for young teachers at least, of the meeting; and some steps should be taken to keep the expositions of the future open for at least a week after the adjournment of the convention. Indeed, it seems to me that the annual sessions of the Association should be lengthened so as to afford visitors a better opportunity to see the work of the various departments.

APPENDIX TO DIRECTOR'S REPORT.

CIRCULAR No. 1.

The proper authorities have decided that an exhibit of school-work, calculated to show the present status of education in the United States, be made in San Francisco, during the session of the National Educational Association for 1888. We believe that this exhibit can be arranged to show the people of the Pacific Coast, more clearly than by any other means, what has been done for the education of the citizen by the older and more populous states, and we are not without the hope that many false impressions of us, caused by our distance and isolation, will, through this exhibit, be removed.

The plan, as far as at present outlined, provides, that a prize of \$500, with diploma, will be awarded to the state or territory, outside of California, making the best general school exhibit in accordance with the following classification:

1. Higher—including universities, colleges, high-schools and normal schools.
2. Grammar.
3. Primary.
4. Kindergarten.
5. Industrial and Scientific—including technical schools, schools for manual training, and schools for the defective classes, etc.

6. Art.

7. School Appliances — including apparatus and school supplies, school books and school architecture.

8. Miscellaneous.

We earnestly hope that school officers and others especially interested in educational progress will show their appreciation of the great benefits, material as well as civilizing, which may accrue to the nation from such an exposition as we hope to have, by doing as thoroughly as possible all in their power to make this exhibition "national, instructive, and complete" — a means of bringing the East to know the West, and the West the East.

The portion of our large pavilion not needed for the school exhibit will be used by our state and local boards of trade for the exhibition of Pacific-Coast products.

Circulars, giving detailed instructions, and containing information regarding reductions in freight and express rates, will be issued as early as possible.

Please acknowledge the receipt of this communication at your earliest convenience, and state what the nature and amount of your exhibit will be. We are nearly two months later in commencing this work than our friends of Chicago were last year, and this, with the greater time required for postal intercourse, makes it imperative that whatever it is intended to do be done promptly. We sincerely hope, therefore, that state superintendents will at once communicate with their county and city superintendents, and organize their states, with the idea of making such an exhibit as will show as clearly as possible their present educational standing.

CIRCULAR NO. 2.

To State and County Superintendents, and Active Educators Generally: As our general circular, already sent, has announced, we will have a National Exhibition of school-work in its various departments, prior to and during the session of the National Educational Association in this city, July 17th to 20th, 1888. We earnestly desire to have such an exhibit of the work done by the older and more populous states, for the first time about to be educationally united with us, as will enlighten and instruct us upon many features of our work, which, with our shorter experience, we may have failed to properly present or sufficiently emphasize. We very urgently request you, in the interests of education, for a share in the good results of your greater, and no doubt more skillful, practice. We hope, but with diffidence, that in some things we may be able to take rank with you, and thus to some extent the benefits accruing may be mutual. We desire to understand the rate of progress of the pupil from year to year, and we rely upon the exhibits and the printed courses of studies to show this.

A \$500 cash prize, with diploma, will be awarded to the state or territory sending the best representation in accordance with the general plan already issued. We trust that some distant state may thus be enabled to pay the expense of sending us an excellent exhibit. California will make the best display she can, but will not compete for the prize.

We have negotiations on foot which most likely will result in round-trip shipping for a single rate. We would like to know as soon as possible how much space to allot to each state intending to exhibit, and *about* how many classes or individuals are to be represented. It is necessary that we be furnished, with as little delay as possible, a catalogue of the articles sent. We have a very large pavilion, 412x222 feet, with a 60-foot gallery running all around it. Our boards of trade wish to make a display of Pacific Coast productions, hence we are anxious to ascertain how much space we can give them after accommodating the Educational Exhibit.

For state organization we would respectfully refer you to Circular No. 3, sent

out from the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. Richard Edwards, Springfield, Ill., February 18, 1887.

The inclosed circulars (No. 1) give the departments into which it is proposed to classify the Exhibition, and as far as practicable these departments will occupy the same relative positions in the spaces allotted to the various states and territories.

Department 8, *Miscellaneous*, provides for the exhibition of anything that may be looked upon as of value in the line of educational reports.

CIRCULAR No. 5.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS RELATIVE TO CALIFORNIA EXHIBITS.

1. In the preparation and display of work, the county shall be the unit, and the county superintendents shall supervise the work in their respective counties.

2. The exhibits from every county (and from every large town within it) will, if possible, be kept together, and arranged in accordance with the general classification. (See Bulletin and first General Circular.)

3. The Committee on Transportation, Hon. F. M. Campbell, Chairman, has announced that material for the Exposition will be shipped and returned for a single rate.

4. For the common-school departments, any kind of work done in the class-room and suitable for exposition, will be received; but the main object will be to show the progress *from year to year*, in order that teachers may determine at what periods of their school-life children can, with the greatest ease and profit, take up the consideration of the various studies believed to be essential in elementary education.

Suggestions:

5. In large schools, where it is thought best to limit the exhibit as to quantity, the principals could assign subjects to assistants, so as to avoid repetition of the same sort of exercise. In the case of writing-books, it would be sufficient to send: First, one full class set written during the year that books are first used; second, a set of the third year after introduction; third, a set representing the last year copy-books are used; or the work of the second, fourth, and last years might be sent. If schools have several classes of the same grade, it will be sufficient to send the best complete set of original papers, selected from the work done for promotion or for review in each study of every grade or year, including the high-school period. Wherever the number of grades equals the number of studies, no one class should be allowed to furnish more than one set of papers. "Complete set" means the papers of every pupil in the class chosen.

6. Original language-work in narration and description in the form of reproduction, letter-writing, etc.; statements of arithmetical processes; drawing, as applied to Geography, History, Physics, Physiology, Practical Geometry, Mechanics, Architecture, etc.; Penmanship in all grades; exercises written from dictation, etc.,—are a few instances of the kinds of work which may be sent from any school, graded or ungraded, public or private.

7. Kindergarten and other private schools and colleges are cordially invited to send exhibits. While we do not demand it, we desire that the exhibits from private institutions be forwarded through the county superintendents.

8. Superintendents are requested to direct the preparation and arrangement of exhibits in ungraded schools to correspond, as nearly as possible, with those of the graded schools.

The general regulations of the Exposition, about to be published in the Bulletin of the Association, apply to California. For information relating to Department (Higher), apply to A. L. Mann, Boys' High School, San Francisco. For information

relating to Department 2 (Grammar), apply to Mrs. N. R. Craven, Mission Grammar School, or to J. T. Hamilton, Lincoln Grammar, San Francisco. For information relating to Department 3, apply to Miss Emma Stincen, Whittier Primary School, or to Miss Jennie Smith, Longfellow Primary School, San Francisco. For information relating to Department 4, apply to Mrs. M. E. Arnold, Franklin Grammar School, San Francisco. For information relative to Department 5, apply to Wm. G. Raymond, Berkeley. For information relative to private schools, apply to Miss Emily Edmunds, Van Ness Seminary, San Francisco.

Applications for space should be sent in as soon as possible, and not later than June 1st; should be signed by the county superintendent; should state the number of square feet which, in the opinion of the exhibitor, will be required, and must contain a list—approximate, at least—of the articles to be exhibited.

The entire exhibit from any place must be boxed or crated. Each box or crate must contain an inventory of the articles placed therein.

CIRCULAR NO. 6.

1. Small boxes or parcels should be placed in larger boxes or crates, in order to reduce the number of packages.

2. Exhibits should be in before July 7th. They will be received and stored on and after July 2d.

3. Exhibits must be removed by July 24th.

4. The Superintendent of the Pavilion will be present daily during business hours, to give information regarding the location of exhibits, decoration of booths, sign-painting, etc.

5. Exhibits will be taken from the depots to the Pavilion, and stored therein, free of charge to the exhibitors.

6. For shipping, all exhibits should be boxed or crated, and not baled or wrapped in paper.

7. Exhibitors will be required to make *separate parcels* for the different departments, and to carefully and plainly label each package with the number of the department, the city or county, and the state, as here shown:

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXPOSITION, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., July, 1888.

Department No. ———. ——— County, State of ———.

Shipments should be directed to J. O'Connor, Director, National Educational Exposition, Mechanics' Pavilion, San Francisco, Cal.; and shipping receipts to J. O'Connor, Flood Building, Fourth and Market streets, San Francisco, Cal.

8. Each package must contain an inventory of the articles contained therein, together with the exhibitor's name and address.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBITS OF THE COMMON-SCHOOL WORK.

GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD, MANHATTAN, KANSAS.

The difficulty of reporting upon so large an exposition of so miscellaneous character, can scarcely be appreciated without an attempt at critical examination. After several hours of careful inspection, and a repetition of the inspection two days later, I felt less capable of making a report than at the beginning. I am led to believe that a similar experience accounts for

the fact that of some half-dozen efficient men who consented to assist in the task, but a single one has offered a word, and he under protest.

In reviewing notes taken on the spot, I find clearly the following impressions:

First, that the display was creditable in quantity, quality and arrangement, and that the various departments of educational industry were well represented. No one could feel that any phase of the problem of school-work was without illustration, though it could not be said that the best of everything was there.

Second, that the whole country was as fairly represented as could be expected at a point so distant from the center of population.

Third, that the schools of the Pacific Coast were filled with an earnest enthusiasm for actual advancement, promising much for the future. While much of the work exhibited compared favorably with similar work from eastern states, there was less of definite method and exactness of execution on the whole, due undoubtedly to the less developed condition of the country, and lack of experience in the same line of presentation.

In the common-school work, left specifically to my inspection, I noticed several tendencies worthy of notice, if not of further cultivation:

First, a very general attention to elementary study of nature, with a drift toward scientific inquiry, even in the work of young children.

Second, employment of hands in varied expression of ideas through the usual channels of drawing, rude sketching, modeling, whittling, and mechanical construction. This, of course, follows a popular suggestion; but more varied originality appeared than I have before noted.

Third, the recognition of individual abilities and tact by distinctive tasks suited apparently to peculiar circumstances. A multitude of little things showed the ambition of individual children quickened by attention of their teachers.

Among the few illustrations of tendencies to be guarded against, I mention only two: First, the overestimate of uniformity in the style of putting up work for the exhibition. In many of the special subjects a strain of unnaturalness was given by the evident effort to make all work appear equally neat by prescribed forms of arrangement, lettering, etc., etc.

Second, the exaggerations of relations in modeling of various kinds. The putty or clay maps in relief too often suggest untruth in the effort to represent irregularities of surface and contour. What is done to correct the false impression made by such work? Should not this accompany the other work?

I was unable on the ground to decide upon comparative merits of the various exhibitions, and as I review my notes at this distance of space and time, I am still less able. All showed commendable energy and zeal in the undertaking. To designate some which gave special excellence would be to omit others equally deserving in other points of excellence.

It seems scarcely worth while to present so meager a report; but the facts given at the outset may explain my inability to do better.

APPENDIX.—OBSERVATIONS ON THE WORK OF THE OAKLAND (CALIFORNIA) HIGH SCHOOL.

JAMES H. BAKER, DENVER, COLORADO.

A half-day was well spent with the Oakland High School exhibits. There was evidence of more than ordinary work in each department of the school. Those who took the trouble to examine the papers in geometry, spoke in high terms of the original work. The instructor himself called attention to the following points:

- I. The generalization of theorems.
- II. The complete solution and discussion of problems.
- III. The modern method of treating the subject, especially such topics as angles, parallels, tangents, etc.
- IV. The use of text-books as a repository of fundamental principles, the burden of the work being *original* proofs, solutions, and discussions. The exhibits of work in literature and history give evidence of excellent practice in making outlines and analyses. Perhaps the work in drawing was more marked than that in any other department. Miss Conners, the teacher, is an enthusiast. A leading feature of the work in the Junior class is the making of models from manilla paper. The models are made from plans and elevations drawn to scale by the pupils. Later, shades and shadows, working-drawings of machinery, and architecture are taught. There was no department of which favorable mention could not be made.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBIT OF WORK IN DRAWING.

LANGDON S. THOMPSON, LAFAYETTE, INDIANA.

The duty of making a report upon the exhibit of the Art Department having been assigned to me, I beg leave to make the following record.

In accordance with your suggestion with regard to assistance, I called to my aid in this work the following-named persons: Albert H. Munsell, of Paris; Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; F. J. Richardson, of Minneapolis, Minn.; W. G. Raymond, J. J. McDay, and Mrs. R. F. English, of California.

I found exhibits in drawing and other art-work from the following schools, which seemed to come under the Art Department as assigned to me: Girls' High School, Boys' High School, and Lincoln Evening School, of San Francisco, Cal.; Oakland Public Schools, California; Livermore College, California; Portland Public Schools, Oregon; St. Paul Public Schools, Minnesota; St. Louis Public Schools, Missouri; Hays Public Schools, Kansas; Muskegon Public Schools, Michigan; Chicago Public Schools and Cook County Normal School, Illinois; Clara Conway Institute, Memphis, Tennessee; Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania; Mechanics' Institute, Cornell University, and Woman's Institute of Technical Design, New York; Public Schools and Evening Drawing School, Worcester, Massachusetts; Med-

ford High School, Free Industrial Evening Drawing School, and State Normal Art School, of Massachusetts.

Girls' High School, San Francisco, California.—The work from this school consisted of outline drawings from copy, and shaded drawings of animals, landscapes, and faces, with some drawings from natural leaves. The drawings from copy were very good; those from objects were on too small a scale. As an educational exhibit it was unsatisfactory, because the drawings were not labeled, or otherwise explained.

Boys' High School, San Francisco, California.—The exhibit from this school consisted of geometrical drawings, orthographic projections, some shaded machine-drawings, and some developments cut from paper. This last—the method of showing developments in some real material—is to be highly commended. All the drawings were creditably done, considered as students' work.

Lincoln Evening School, San Francisco, California.—The display from this school consisted of shaded drawings of cogs, screws, geometrical solids, machines, and some architectural plans and elevations. Here, again, the want of definite information as to the ages and grades of the pupils, prevents our expressing an intelligent judgment.

Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California.—As an educational exhibit this was very complete and highly commendable. Each grade was carefully marked, and what was attempted was clearly seen. Perhaps the inventive character of the work in the lower grades was too prominent, or out of proportion to the other departments necessary to a well-balanced system of drawing. The superintendent of drawing, Paul A. Garin, is evidently a thinker, and is not blinded by any of the stereotyped systems of the day.

Livermore College, Livermore, California.—From this institution we have shaded drawings of faces and landscapes, with some maps. The maps are excellent; the other work is from copy, and without labels.

Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon.—The exhibit from this city was quite extensive and varied, and on the whole creditable to the enterprise of its educators. From the high school there was considerable work in light and shade, which was a little "hard," and lacked a little in what is called "illumination."

St. Paul Public Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota.—The work from this city included elementary design, freehand drawing from copy and from objects, geometrical drawings, and color-work from the primary grades. The color-work was excellent. The work from copy, from objects, and in design was also very commendable. In the high-school work there was a marked artistic feeling. Miss A. M. Laughlin has had charge of the drawing at St. Paul for several years, and her influence is very perceptibly shown in the exhibit.

St. Louis Public Schools, St. Louis, Missouri.—From these schools we have

a very orderly and extensive educational exhibit, showing work from all the different grades of the primary, grammar, high, and normal schools. While all the work is very creditable, the clay-work was especially commendable. These excellent results are due to the enthusiasm and energy of the superintendent of drawing, Miss Josephine C. Locke, whom the Board of Education of St. Louis have had the wisdom to keep in her position for many years.

Hays Public Schools, Hays, Kansas.—The drawings from these schools show a good beginning in drawing, which needs to be developed into a more systematic course.

Muskegon Public Schools, Muskegon, Michigan.—From Muskegon we have drawings from copy, from objects, in light and shade, and from maps; also paper-work in manual training. The copying is very good, and the paper-work quite commendable.

Chicago Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois.—From this city there is another orderly and intelligible educational exhibit, which as to merit must be classed as excellent. If any part of the work is better than the others perhaps it is in elementary design; but the drawings from copy, from objects, and in color, as well as the clay-work, are all very good. These schools also have had the benefit of systematic supervision in drawing in the person of Mrs. E. F. Dimock.

Cook County Normal School, Illinois.—This exhibit was quite varied in character; consisting of clay-modeling, designs, examples of making, some block-shading, as well as wood-carving and relief maps. The wood-carving was good, but the relief maps were remarkably excellent.

Clara Conway Institute, Memphis, Tennessee.—The exhibit from this institute consisted mostly of some character studies—there being apparently no attempt to present a graded or educational course of study.

Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania.—Under the head of instrumental drawings are shown machine-drawings, orthographic projections, blue-prints, perspective, topographical drawings, and drawings of bridges; under freehand work are shown shaded drawings of common objects and casts, besides some drawings in color. The instrumental work was very excellent.

Mechanics' Institute, Rochester, New York.—This institution displays geometrical, architectural, and machine-drawings; drawings from copy, from objects, in light and shade, and in color. The architectural drawings and those in light and shade and in color are good.

Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.—From this institution there is quite a variety of work; as geometrical and machine-drawing; drawing from copy, from objects, from the figure, in color, in light and shade; sketches from nature; elementary design. The geometrical work is excellent; the

other kinds are good, except perhaps the color and figure-work, the last of which is rather low in grade.

Woman's Institute of Technical Design, New York City.—The drawings from this institute were more technical than educational; and for this reason, perhaps, the exhibit should not be included in this report. The working designs for carpets, wall-papers, oil-cloth and calico were very good; the wood-carving and clay-modeling were not equal in merit to the designs above mentioned.

Worcester Public Schools, Worcester, Massachusetts.—The Worcester exhibit was quite complete as to grades and subjects. The instrumental work consisted of geometrical, architectural and machine-drawings. The freehand included drawings from copy, from objects, in light and shade, in color, and in design. The color-work was considered particularly excellent, while the other work was mostly very good.

Worcester Evening Drawing School, Worcester, Massachusetts.—The subjects represented were geometrical, architectural and machine-drawing; drawing in light and shade, and applied architectural design. The architectural drawings and designs were considered excellent.

Medford High School, Medford, Massachusetts.—The machine-drawing was excellent; the geometrical, copy and object-drawings were good; the elementary design was not so good as the other subjects.

Free Industrial Evening Drawing School, South Boston, Massachusetts. The subjects represented were geometrical and machine-drawing; ship-drafting; drawings from objects, and in light and shade; applied design. All the work from this school was very excellent. The exhibit was characterized as the only one in which ship-drafting and models were shown. The excellent character of the work is doubtless due to the principal, Professor Geo. H. Bartlett.

Massachusetts State Normal Art School, Boston, Massachusetts.—The exhibit from this school illustrated a complete four-years course of art study, necessary for a teacher. The instrumental work included geometrical, architectural, machine, topographical and ship-drafting drawings; the freehand work consisted of drawings from objects, in light and shade, in color, both oil and water, and from the figure; the designs were in color, in black and white, in the round and applied. The work all through—the drawing, painting, and modeling—was of a superior grade. The work was of its own kind, in that it came from the only professional normal art school in the country. Professor Geo. H. Bartlett, the principal, is indefatigable in his efforts for the highest attainable excellence.

Present Phase of the Drawing Question.—Judging from the exhibit, from conversation with educators, and from the references to drawing in the papers presented before the Association, this subject is securing a foothold in our largest schools. There is great variety of opinion, however, as to the

upreme good to be expected from it, and hence as to the method of teaching it. Many, perhaps the great majority, still think that picture-making is the chief end and aim; and as the easiest way to produce a picture is to copy the drawing or painting of another, we find many self-deceived teachers and pupils who suppose if one can copy well he can draw well. Let it be understood once for all, that the drawing which is to affect character in the noblest way, must be a *translation*, not an imitation, of that which is seen, or felt, or desired. In ordinary translation from one language to another, one must thoroughly understand and feel the thought to be expressed, and one must also have facility in the use of the language in which the thought is to be expressed. In the order of time we have first the thought and then its expression, but in fact neither is complete without the other, and they must be synthetically joined in a perfect unity.

Let us, then, so far as we can (we cannot do this perfectly until our teachers have had more time to study the subject), treat drawing as a means for the expression of thought—the pupil's thought, not that of some one else—until he can make it his own. Now if this is a true view, it seems to me that the order of procedure is plain. The teacher's business is to lead the pupil to think, and to give him in some way a motive for expressing his thought, either in three dimensions, by means of surfaces, or in two dimensions, by means of lines, light and shade, and color.

We are tempted by the study of this exhibit, and the observations we have made at other times, to make another remark. The recognized leaders of the drawing movement have been studying the subject from fifteen to twenty years, and some of them think they have about solved the questions to the best method of teaching this subject. These leaders have worked themselves up to a high degree of enthusiasm, while the great body of the teachers have been absorbed in teaching the subjects required of them. The leaders are so far in advance and so high in the æsthetical region that their voices are scarcely heard, and they seem to be speaking in an unknown tongue. Let the leaders come near the teachers and put themselves in their places. Many of these teachers are seeking the right way, and they are more than willing to be directed by those who have been over this way before them; but they should be allowed a reasonable time to arrive at the heights now occupied by their leaders.

In other words, the friends of drawing will do well to slightly overlook what ought to be, and take up the subject just where the common teachers are ready to begin.

**REPORT ON THE EXHIBITS OF THE INDUSTRIAL COLLEGES, EVENING DRAWING SCHOOLS, AND
NORMAL ART SCHOOLS.**

JOHN M. ORDWAY, NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA.

Drawings and other art-work were exhibited by the Massachusetts Normal Art School, of Boston; the Manual-Training School, of St. Louis; Cornell University, of New York; Swarthmore College, of Pennsylvania; Livermore College, of Livermore, California; by the Woman's Institute of Technical Design, of New York city; and by the Free Industrial Evening Drawing School, of South Boston, Mass.; the Evening School, of Worcester, Mass.; the Lincoln Evening School, of San Francisco; and the Mechanics' Institute, of Rochester, New York. A close, critical examination of so many good things would have required far more time than we had at command while the building was open, and therefore we can only mention a few points respecting this satisfactory part of the exhibition.

The Massachusetts Normal Art School is the only one in our country which has for its main object the training of teachers of drawing for schools of general education. It is evidently animated by a thoughtful, liberal, and progressive spirit, and it seems justly entitled to the high reputation which it has acquired. The large exhibit embraced excellent work in the various lines of freehand and mechanical linear drawing, geometrical projections, perspective, shading, tinting, crayon-sketching, painting in water-colors, oil painting, clay-modeling, and ornamental design. It appeared to be made up not of extra, prize specimens, but of the regular work of the pupils, and of pupils not limited to one or two branches. Of course a teacher may not actually have occasion to give instruction in all departments of his art; but he should himself understand all branches, and have such liberal training as will enable him to comprehend the just relation of all parts to each other and to the other subjects of education. For specimens of the most exquisite manual skill in art, we must look to the specialist of long practice, and not to the teacher, for he has much more to do than simply to exercise his own dexterity and artistic talent. Nor must we expect the highest finish from the school-boy, for he has many things to learn, and must not push one branch at the expense of the others. We should judge school exercises as school-work, and not according to its absolute excellence. The student should not be encouraged to expend an excessive amount of time on any one drawing. We were glad, therefore, to find in the Normal Art School exhibit many "time sketches," made in a limited time and without aid. These afford unquestionable tests of the facility and skill of the students; and the frequent requirement of such examinations enforces the need of concentration of mind and economy of force. In drawing, as well as in

other things, it is well to cultivate true mental perspective—a sense of the relative importance of the parts to be represented—and not to allow time to be frittered away in the elaboration of insignificant details. The true artist cannot afford to spend days in ornamenting the shoe-buckles of his heroes, and the architect gains nothing by showing every single stone of a building. The pupil should study to give the fullest expression with the fewest strokes of pencil or brush.

Besides the show of regular students' work, the Boston school put up a series of illustrations as "suggestions for a nine-years course" in common schools. According to this, no one subject is to be taken up and exhausted before proceeding to another, but the different branches are to be taught every year, the work in each being of a higher grade than that of the preceding year. The pupil must carry on throughout the course the study of the actual forms of objects as they occupy space, their appearance to the eye, the representation of simpler forms in clay, paper, or other easily-worked material, the delineation of objects as projected on a flat surface, and the variation and combination of parts to produce pictorial compositions or ornamental designs; or, more concisely expressed, facts, appearances, representation, composition. A nine-years course seems long, and it could be fully carried out by very few; but the "suggestions" may be of use in planning shorter courses, as each successive year does not vary very greatly from the one immediately preceding. The underlying thought is to raise drawing above mere mechanical imitation, and make it a full exercise of the mind as well as of the hand. The aim is to find the best way of teaching to observe accurately all parts of an object, their shapes and proportions, the perspective, the colors, lights, shades and shadows—to make and understand natural and conventional representations of objects seen by the eye, and to materialize what is seen or devised by the imagination. Another object is to cultivate the taste, the perception of what is fit and harmonious, true and beautiful, among actual or possible forms and combinations.

The St. Louis Manual-Training School made a very full and instructive display of drawings of the different classes, in connection with their hand-work in wood and iron. Freehand drawing receives some, but certainly none too much attention in this school, while a much greater share of the time is given to instrumental work. The course is well laid out, and the drawings of the advanced students showed great proficiency in the subject. Drawing and hand-work are a help to each other, and therein such an institution has a decided advantage over the ordinary school in which there is drawing only. There is, however, some danger of pursuing the mechanical side of education relatively too far; and while the skill displayed called for much admiration, the question would suggest itself, whether the study of a locomotive and the complete and nice delineation of all its parts is not a little too much for a young man in a three-years course of various studies? Work of this sort seems more in place in the mechanical-engineering school, or in the evening schools attended by special mechanics.

The Cornell University collection of freehand drawings from other copies, from casts, and from nature, of original designs, and instrumental drawings, though not large, was very creditable. There was no indication of the previous training of the students; but if the preparatory schools had afforded such fitting as they ought to, the time of pupils in a higher institution ought not to be taken up with such uninspiring work as the servile copying of other drawings. It requires some thought to make a copy on a different scale from that of the original, or to copy a rude sketch and supply the proper details, and work of this kind has to be done in practical life. But no special training or practice is needed for it. If children in the primary schools can be made to draw from objects, certainly college students ought to do none but original work.

Swarthmore College has adopted manual training and drawing as a part of its regular work. These branches are said to be taken up in the two preparatory years, and carried on through the first two college years. Drawing is also continued through the junior and senior years of the engineering course. Besides specimens of shop-work, there was shown a pretty full collection of geometrical, mechanical and architectural drawings, evincing a just appreciation of what may be required of college students.

In the line of freehand work there were exhibited many specimens of flower painting, sketches of "still life," and drawings "from casts" and "from objects." Seeing these last two special designations, we were led to the inference—which, however, may not be correct—that the first work consisted of copies from the sketches or paintings of others. They were very well done, to be sure, but, if our inference is right, we cannot commend this old-fashioned way of using up valuable time.

The exhibit of Livermore College consisted mostly of freehand work. It gave us the general impression of a good beginning, but hardly as much real progress as the schools before mentioned.

The Woman's Institute of Technical Design must be noticed, though it stands outside the limits of general educational work, its object being to train designers for industrial manufactures. This institution made an extensive display, including not only plain and colored designs on paper and models in clay and plaster, but corresponding executed work in textiles, brass, silver, wood, and pottery. The specimens were beautiful in themselves, and were also interesting as showing some of the ways in which women of talent and artistic skill may make their gifts available in earning their bread. New patterns for decorations are continually wanted in many branches of manufactures, and special designs which cause a rapid sale of the goods have a just claim to a share of the profits. Such work, however, is not to be judged simply according to its intrinsic fitness and beauty. Hard restrictions are imposed by the nature of the material to be decorated, and particularly by ever-changing fashion. A designer must make things as pretty as the conditions will allow, but too often a chaste and refined judgment must yield to a capricious and conventional public taste. For she

must give her work a commercial value, and therefore must make what will sell. There is needed art training which the school can give, and there is needed also the study of probabilities which can be made only in connection with the commercial world. For only the observant and sagacious specialist in each line can tell what will be wanted the next week or the next season, in the way of calicoes or gingham or trimmings or carpets or wall-paper or jewelry or furniture or pottery.

The work shown by the several evening drawing schools spoke well for the efforts that have been made to give instruction to those who by day are engaged in earning their living. Evidently, the good seed has by no means been scattered on barren ground. We might naturally expect, that after the labors of the day are over, there would be little inclination to take up exercises requiring thought and close attention and patient industry. But the drawings exhibited gave evidence of a zeal not to be discouraged by slight difficulties. Of course, in such schools there are likely to be some pupils who find their lessons to have a close relation to their trade-work, and their habits of nice measurement and close calculation prove to be a help in their drawing. We need not be surprised, therefore, to find much of the work done in evening schools fully equal to that performed by those who are engaged in study all the time.

The South Boston Free School, which is supported by the John Hawes fund, showed a considerable range of freehand drawing, elementary design, colored designs, shading, sketches of human figures, and drawings of machinery and naval constructions.

The Worcester school was also well represented by machine and architectural drawings, as well as freehand work. As drawing has been taught in the public schools of Massachusetts for many years, it is probable that some of these mechanics have received their first start in this work before leaving the common school. Still, if this is so, it is none the less to their credit that they have been ambitious of further improvement.

The Lincoln Evening School, of San Francisco, exhibited very good work in various lines. It is evident that the great Western metropolis does not mean to be behind the Eastern cities in affording the means of improvement to those who will avail themselves of such aid, and that the chances are not offered in vain.

The Mechanics' Institute of Rochester deserves honorable mention for its contribution to the exhibition. The drawings were of about the same character as those of the other schools.

To enable one to judge of the relative merits of different specimens and of different schools from the educator's standpoint, it would be of great use to have appended to each drawing information which is not always furnished in full or is often altogether withheld. It is desirable to have stated the age of the pupil, his place in the school, his previous practice in drawing, whether the piece is original or a copy, how much time has been occupied

in making it—how much time in school and how much out of the classroom—and whether it is ordinary class-work or is the result of some incitement to extra effort. In the case of evening schools, the occupation of the student should also be given. And with regard to each exhibit in general it would be well to have it made known whether the work is that of the last year or a selection from that of several years, and whether it represents an average or only the best; also how much time per week is devoted to drawing lessons, and whether the work is confined to the hours of instruction. Such particularization would indeed give some extra trouble to the exhibitors, but it would make the displays much more instructive. It may not be too much to hope that in future years some common printed form may be agreed on, to be filled out and attached to every piece exhibited.

REPORT ON MANUAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EXHIBITS IN GENERAL.

SELIM H. PEABODY, CHAMPAIGN, ILLINOIS.

At your request I made a careful examination of the work of technical schools on exhibition at San Francisco at the meeting of the National Educational Association in July last, and have to report as follows:

The largest exhibit in this department was that made by the Manual-Training school of St. Louis, under the direction of Dr. C. M. Woodward. It represented three years' work in drawing and shop-practice. The pupils who did the first year's work were from fourteen to sixteen years old; the subsequent classes were correspondingly older.

The drawings showed a well-arranged series of instruction extending through the three years. Many series were shown, the work of different pupils, uniform in design and in excellence. In twenty copies of the same sheet of drawing, it would be difficult to select the most meritorious, while all were fairly commendable. Some brush-shadings, freehand pen-drawings, and architectural drawings, were especially good.

The wood-work consisted of various dressed pieces, joints, splices, dados, turned pieces, carvings, whittled pieces, etc., with patterns for casting, boxes, etc. As a rule the wood-work was not well done. The pieces were not accurately cut, nor joined, nor fitted, nor turned, nor were they well finished. And this quality of accuracy did not improve as the grade of work advanced; the patterns for casting, which should have shown most of this quality, really showed least of it. The whittled work was unique, and was very good.

The blacksmithing was much better. The method of making the pieces,

first in lead and afterwards in iron, and, in some instances, a third time in steel, produces excellent results. The merit of the method is that the thought of the pupil is not distracted by attention to discordant or conflicting elements. At first his material, lead, is practically at a constant temperature, and the whole attention can be given to the manipulation of the hammer. This tool mastered, the modifying influences of the changing ductility of the heated iron or steel may be more carefully observed, and the consequent difficulties may be better overcome. The variety of iron pieces was large, the work was smoothly done, and with little burning of the metal.

The machinist's work, cold-chiseling, filing, machine-turning and planing, was also good. Pieces which worked together were well fitted, the finish was fine, and the workmanship was correct. There were pulleys, screw-jacks, couplings, and a small engine and dynamo, all of which showed creditable skill from design to finish.

This was the only exhibit of shop-products in wood and iron.

Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, showed a series of drawings, extending from the preparatory year through the freshman, sophomore and junior years to architectural and engineering plans and elevations. This entire series was admirable, both in outline and in detail. The drawing was particularly fine, clear, and accurate.

Sibley College of Cornell University sent a series of thirty plates showing an outline of work from the most elementary to the most elaborate, which was excellent.

The Free Industrial Evening Drawing School of South Boston, Mass., presented a fine series of drawings, representing simple mechanical movements, parts of machines, details, and full constructions, and culminating in drawings of the lines and moulds of vessels, the latter also being worked out in wooden models of vessel hulls. This work was also excellent.

San Francisco was represented in this department by the Boys' High School, which showed some creditable drawings, surveys, and maps. The Lincoln Evening School sent drawings—mathematical, mechanical, and architectural. Evening drawing is always done under peculiar embarrassments, which evidently were not overcome here. As a rule, all evening work is overdone in shade and is inaccurate in execution.

The Oakland High School presented a series of work, from the elements of geometry to the drawings of a steam engine. These drawings indicated haste, want of care, and lack of precision, which seriously impair the good which should have resulted from so much effort.

Drawings were shown also by the following: Mechanics' Institute, Rochester, N. Y.; Medford, Mass., High School; Worcester, Mass., High School; Worcester, Mass., Evening School; St. Paul, Minn., High School.

While all of these were meritorious, there was nothing in either which deserved either special commendation or criticism.

On account of the great distance of this exhibition from the leading tech-

nical schools of the United States, this display can hardly be said to represent the best or the most advanced work of technical instruction as it is now developed and practiced.

REPORT ON KINDERGARTEN EXHIBITS.

NORA A. SMITH, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

The exhibit of Kindergarten work was full, well arranged, and artistic in detail. It was given an advantageous position by the authorities in charge, and proved an interesting study to all visitors. For we may thankfully say that Kindergarten work is not only instructive, but also beautiful, and no one who came to the exhibit a stranger to Kindergarten methods could have failed to be impressed with the power and dexterity of the little hands that had made this large display.

Kindergarten work in the United States was represented by the following cities and towns: St. Louis, Mo.; Chicago, Ill.; Muskegon, Mich.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; La Porte, Ind.; Portland, Ore.; Vancouver, W. T.; Washington, D. C.; and San Francisco, Oakland, San José, Stockton, Marysville, and Fresno, California.

St. Louis.—The St. Louis Free-Kindergarten exhibit was very carefully executed, the schools of work being clear and well shown, and the development logical in every exercise. The occupations shown were: Parquetry, cork-work, sewing, drawing, slat-work, weaving, cutting, folding, modeling, and stick inventions. The chart-work shown in this exhibit was very interesting, each chart bearing a collection of objects brought by the children to illustrate a certain subject. There were charts of form and color, of birds, fruits, and flowers, of trades and games, and finally, of the four seasons and the principal holidays. St. Louis also sent a model of the beautiful Shepard Kindergarten, completely furnished and decorated, and lighted by an electric light.

Chicago.—The occupations shown in the Chicago exhibit were: Sewing, weaving, clay and card-board modeling, drawing, folding, pin-sticking tablets, stick inventions, and number-work in beads. The kindergartners here had made a specialty of useful charts. For instance, one card illustrated weaving,—the spider in one corner, the spinning-wheel in another, strips of cloth interwoven in another, and finally the Kindergarten mat. Another chart was on "Uses of Flowers," and another, "To Create Sympathy with Flowers." There were peas in bottles at one, two, three, four, five, six and seven days, and six, seven and eight weeks, showing growth from seed to fruit. There was much excellent ground-work, one piece showing a complete farm-yard, with animals, farming implements, etc. The number-lessons

in beads and sticks were very well worked out, and the whole exhibit showed a definite and thoughtful purpose.

Muskegon, Michigan.—This exhibit showed sewing, weaving, folding, twisting, cutting, parquetry, drawing, pricking, and modeling. No schools of sewing or drawing were shown here, but the inventions in these occupations and in weaving were very creditable. The modeling was well colored, and there was some very good drawing in chalk on black card-board.

Christiansen Institute, Brooklyn.—This institute showed weaving, sewing, pricking, cutting, and folding, most of the work being made up into souvenirs.

Portland, Oregon.—The free kindergartens of Portland exhibited sewing, weaving, drawing, folding, and parquetry. The drawing on the dotted paper was well done, and the freehand work was quite remarkable for so young children.

Pensoara Free Kindergarten, Washington.—The occupations shown here were sewing, parquetry, weaving, drawing, and stick-work. Much of the work was cut in fancy shapes, into baskets, boxes, etc. The drawing inventions, collected in one large book, were unusual in idea and well executed.

La Porte, Indiana.—The beautiful little exhibit sent by Mrs. Hailmann showed the value of dots in the kindergarten. The shading and harmonizing of color in this work was exquisite.

Miss Marwedel's Exhibit.—Miss Emma Marwedel sent from Europe illustrations of her beautiful "curve system" in drawing and sewing, of her wooden rings and half-rings, wooden shells, and various other original appliances for kindergarten work.

California.—California showed kindergarten work from the following twelve counties: Sonoma, Del Norte, Contra Costa, Ventura, Fresno, Los Angeles, Monterey, San Francisco, Santa Clara, San Joaquin, Yuba, and Alameda. Most of this was the kindergarten work executed in primary schools. The favorite occupation seemed to be sewing, weaving, and cutting, though a little folding, parquetry, drawing, pricking, and clay-work were also shown. The towns of San José, Stockton, and Marysville sent exhibits of their free kindergarten work, and Fresno sent a complete exhibit of a private kindergarten there.

San Francisco Primary Schools.—San Francisco showed kindergarten-work from forty primary schools. Much of this was well done, and is certainly a step in the right direction as a relief from the weariness of first steps in reading and writing. The principal occupations here again were sewing, weaving, and folding.

San Francisco Free Kindergartens.—The free kindergartens of San Francisco and Oakland united in a display of kindergarten-work covering 1,595 square feet of surface. At the head of the exhibit hung a banner with the

following inscription: "In 1878 one free kindergarten. In 1888 forty-three."

All the Froebel occupations were shown in the exhibit, with full schools and inventions in each. There were also tablet, stick, ring, and bean inventions transferred to card-board. The various kinds of drawing, on the square, on the dot, in black and in colors, and the freehand work, made a fine showing. Beautiful illustrations in colors were given of the "curve system" in drawing. Number-work was shown in beads and peg-tiles. Modeling in wax and clay, both colored and uncolored, was on exhibition, as well as card-board modeling.

There were three kinds of skeleton-work, showing outlines of geometrical solids, forms of life and beauty, in wires connected by corks, sticks and peas, and wires connected together by balls of clay. Plates of the different sequences of life and beauty in the solid gifts were shown, as well as the gifts themselves used in various building exercises.

A creditable example of group-work was the doll-house of five rooms: parlor, bed-room, kitchen, dining-room, and private kindergarten room, completely furnished by the children. Sand table-work was there, one table holding a country-house with stable, flower garden; summer-house, and tennis court. Collections of music books used in the free kindergartens were exhibited, as well as reports of free kindergarten-work in California, and pamphlets descriptive of the work of the California Froebel Society.

Private Kindergartens.—Three private kindergartens of San Francisco made interesting exhibits showing much original and inventive work.

Exhibit of Kindergarten Training Schools.—Four kindergarten training schools, two public and two private, made exhibits of work. These were the public training schools of St. Louis and Chicago, and two private training schools of California, "The California Kindergarten Training School," and the "Pacific Kindergarten Normal School."

St. Louis Normal Training Work.—This was marked by the same clearness in "schools of work," and the same orderly development, which characterized the occupations executed by the children. The modeling was also particularly noticeable.

Chicago Training Work.—The drawing here was done entirely on the curve system, including studies in half-circles, quarter-circles, combinations of wholes, halves and quarters, and ovals. These were subsequently developed into borders, arabesques, and flowers. The demonstration of problems in plane geometry by means of paper-cutting was well worked out, and the exhibit was particularly strong in the building, by means of clay bricks, of various architectural forms, as the Greek temple, the Roman arch, the Gothic house, etc.

California Kindergarten Training School.—The California Kindergarten Training School made a full exhibit of work in all the occupations. The

noticeable features here were the attention paid to harmony of color, the beauty of design, and the care with which the work was executed. Stories told in pictures were shown, and there was a large building exhibit, illustrating Froebel's saying that the child might by means of his solid gifts be led through all epochs of architecture from Egypt to Greece.

Pacific Kindergarten Normal School.—The Pacific Kindergarten Normal School, of San Francisco, showed the usual kindergarten occupations, carefully worked out and arranged with taste.

The Kindergarten exhibit, in general, may be said to have been satisfactory. Clay-modeling, however, one of the most valuable of our kindergarten occupations, was somewhat neglected, and not sufficient gift-work was exhibited. Sequences were also put in the background in some cases, and a preference shown for "fancy-work" rather than for logical development.

It should be remembered that our kindergarten occupations are of little value if a certain law and sense of sequence is not to be seen in each one of them. To-day's work should naturally and logically grow from what was done yesterday, and should clearly indicate that which must of necessity come to-morrow.

Yet the Kindergarten exhibit as a whole, undoubtedly served as a popular educator, and did its part toward hastening the time when the Froebel method shall be an integral part of our public-school work.

REPORT ON PRIMARY, GRAMMAR AND HIGH-SCHOOL WORK IN ART.

EMILY A. EDMUNDS, SOUTH KENSINGTON, LONDON.

This exhibit is generally of the greatest interest to teachers, evincing immense energy and perseverance in the arduous work of training the young, and a careful review of the salient points in the results shown has been a very fascinating occupation to the writer.

Chicago grammar schools send very perfect designs in paper-cutting, in beautiful effects of color, especially where tints representing wood are used; also very good "home-work" in wood-carving in flower-forms, objects, and geometric designs. This is the best work of the kind in the whole collection.

St. Paul's district schools show excellence in models in sepia, and send fine architectural designs and good machine-drawing. The early-grade studies in harmony of color and drawing from objects are of the highest excellence.

From Muskegon, Michigan, come pretty ornamental designs in fifth and

sixth grades, and good specimens of drawings produced in two years under a special teacher; also nice artistic needlework in fifth grade.

Worcester schools show fine early-grade work and very beautiful original decorative designs (fifth and sixth grades), and more beautiful specimens of higher excellence in later grades; also fine architectural drawing (pen-and-ink), and very fair shading from models and casts. The studies in water-color are very good, being clear and pure in tone and evincing true perception of harmony in color. The mechanical and architectural drawings of the evening school are thoroughly well executed.

The Portland schools (Oregon) send a good exhibit from the examination papers in pencil-drawing, showing effective third and fourth-grade work, and original decorative designs of a very rich and florid character; also some good shaded work in models. The collection of botanical specimens is of crowning excellence, and does honor to the talent and industry alike of teacher and pupil. These piles of lovely flowers were the admiration of appreciating visitors to the exhibition, and it will be interesting to others to know the plan of study followed in this enterprising State. Nuttall's Botany is the text-book used. Recitations are given four times a week, and pupils are carefully instructed in the best mode of preparing the dried specimens after they have been collected in the weekly expeditions organized for this purpose.

The public schools of St. Louis send a magnificent display of primary, grammar, and high-school work—work that can only be produced by systematic, carefully-graded instruction of the highest intelligence. And as the entire exhibit is eminently successful and most worthy of emulation, it will be valuable to teachers to state that the books for drawing and models for form-study used by the St. Louis schools can be obtained from the Prang Educational Company, Boston. In all grades the modeling in clay is a prominent feature, commencing from simple fruit and geometric form, and going on to the more complicated pieces of decorative art and designs in foliage. The latter specimens of modeling bear the fresh impress of nature, and all the refinement of delicate detail. A finely-executed profile of Dante in high relief was a notable piece of eighth-grade effort. The courses of drawing in construction, representation, and decoration, are more systematically developed than in any of the other schools, and the original designs from nature, and conventional developments of the same, are of the highest order of merit. They lead on successfully to the studies in still-life, and drawings from casts in the high-school grades, which do full justice to the important early-grade training, and prominently justify the award of merit made by the National Educational Association.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBITS OF THE CALIFORNIA SCHOOLS.

J. M. GREENWOOD, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI.

In compliance with the committee's request to write a report on "The California Exhibit in the Pavilion on the North and West Sides," I herewith submit the following statement of the work which I examined.

An exhibit of school-work may represent the work of an entire school, the work of an entire room or class, or the "show-work" of a few pupils. That is, an exhibit may be partial or entire, complete or incomplete. The most satisfactory exhibitions of work are those which show the work of each pupil in all the subjects that he pursues. While one subject fully represented by each pupil may indicate the trend of the school, yet such a partial display is not sufficiently comprehensive to warrant a general conclusion in reference to the other branches. Or, in other words, a school, or a group of schools, may be very strong in certain lines of work, but exceedingly weak in other directions. Under such conditions, a school, or a system of schools, should be judged on all sides rather than by one special test. Another modification comes in here, in passing judgment upon any school exhibit, and that is, the two mediums of comparison that are employed. For instance, in the case of California the work of the pupils of that state may be judged by the counties or cities, comparing one with each of the others; or by comparing the work of the state with that of other states.

In order that comparisons may be justly and intelligently made, all pupils should prepare their work after a prescribed plan which is simple, direct, and easily followed. Diversity of arrangement, even on the same topic, in ordinary school-work is an element of confusion usually, and is not much better than the "go-as-you-please method" so frequently resorted to, and which constitutes largely school exhibits displayed to captivate the multitude. Of course it is no real test of what a school can do, whether it is an ungraded, graded, high, normal school, college, special school, or university, to put on exhibition specimens from a few of the best pupils as fair representations of the work of the school.

This kind of a display is a willful and perverse misrepresentation which honest teachers deprecate, and that it is occasionally practiced in certain sections of our country is the reason that I refer to it in this connection.

In examining the school-work on exhibition at the Pavilion, what impressed me most favorably was that it was an *honest exhibition*. Just as the pupils had done their work it had been collected, arranged, and placed on exhibition. I inspected the exhibits from the following counties: Nevada, Placer, Fresno, San Luis Obispo, Ventura, Sacramento, Monterey, Los

Angeles, Solano, Tulare, Tehama, Del Norte, San Joaquin, Alameda, Sonoma; also from Oakland and San Francisco.

It would be beyond the scope of the present inquiry to give a detailed account of all the exhibits from each county, city and town, yet I deem it proper to call attention to a few points which deserve special mention.

In my opinion the work in geography was better than that in any other other branch. It was well executed, and in many cases tastefully presented.

One reason, perhaps, why the work in geography made a better appearance than any other subject, may be found in the fact that a greater effort had been made to illustrate the remarkable resources of the state than to illustrate the work in purely intellectual lines. The map-drawings and other devices employed to represent the mineral and vegetable productions were admirable specimens of what pupils can do when they and their teachers are interested in a subject.

Closely connected with map-drawing and modeling should also be mentioned approvingly, freehand drawing and crayon and charcoal sketching. In geography—which is the natural-science department of the common-school course—and drawing, modeling, and sketching—the vestibule to art culture, the schools represented appeared to have made the most progress. The exhibit, taken collectively, bore evidence of a more persistent effort, or purpose, in these two classes of work than in any others which I examined. It may also be inferred that the teachers had clearer notions of how forms should be represented on a plane than of expressing other branches through the medium of written language.

The writing, as such, with the exception of specimens from the Oakland schools, lacked unity of purpose. Instead of intelligent, careful, daily practice, not only in the writing exercises, but also in all written work, the pupils had not been drilled so well as in geography or drawing. Practice can never make a school write a beautiful hand unless it be done in the right way.

Two or three years of the right kind of instruction in writing would bring the pupils up in that branch where they are now in geography.

In the Oakland school exhibit, the specimens that had been collected by the supervisor of writing were very good indeed, much better in appearance than the work in other branches from the same pupils. This leads to the inference that the methods of teaching penmanship belong exclusively to a "writing teacher," and so it must have been regarded by a large majority of teachers whose schools were represented in the display. This idea, or inference, is simply an assumption, without any foundation in fact or reason.

The language and number-work throughout compared favorably with that found in other sections of the country. While there was lacking somewhat that definite form and taste in the arrangement of matter that is frequently seen in some other localities, yet the subject-matter was good.

No doubt it would be very desirable to appoint a committee of experts to report at some future meeting of the Association, *forms for the preparation*

of papers on language, arithmetic, United States history, spelling, penmanship, etc., that such work may be the more easily compared,—many advantages would also arise from having a definite way of doing a particular thing.

The great variety of work exhibited by the San Francisco public schools deserves more extended notice than can be given in the space at my command. The John Swett Grammar School presented an elegant display of “garments which the girls had made in school.” The specimens in drawing were very beautiful; as also were those of the Lincoln School.

Among the articles which the girls of the Mission Grammar School had sewed, I take great pleasure in calling attention to the aprons which the girls in Miss Harper’s room cut and made. The specimens of painting and drawing from pupils of this school were admirably done.

One of the most pleasing pictures that I ever beheld was that of the “pictures of the primary pupils of the Longfellow School.” These were the most natural and perfect specimens on exhibition. However, the work of the primary pupils in all the schools was uniformly good.

As another committee examined the kindergarten work, I refer to it in a general manner.

The fruit-modeling and coloring, paper-folding, paper-twisting, slate-work, paper-cutting, weaving, etc., etc., would compare favorably with similar work from other large cities.

But the finest school-work, and that in which the schools appeared to be especially strong, was that in mathematics, from the San Francisco and Oakland high schools. The mathematical instruction in these schools is undoubtedly of a high order. That of the Oakland high school I examined with great interest; and while I am not advised in regard to the incentive which produces such work, yet when it is measured by any standard it must be pronounced excellent. And also the same is true of that of the two high schools in San Francisco. Whether the excellence in mathematics is attained in these schools at the expense of linguistic and scientific instruction, I have no means of knowing; or whether these schools are as strong in these departments as they are in elementary mathematics, I am unable to say; yet here is a fact that is worthy of further investigation.

Summing up the impressions that were made upon my mind from an examination of the school exhibit, I would say that the California exhibit, while embodying many excellent features, was wanting somewhat in the unity of purpose which should characterize a closely adjusted and closely supervised system of schools. This kind of work must permeate a large portion of the teaching force of a state before it is manifest in the results of the school-rooms. Then, again, the advantages arising from large exhibits from other states have never been enjoyed by the great mass of California teachers.

A distance of two thousand miles separates them from what is here called “the West,” so that they, to a great extent, are obliged to depend upon them-

selves for models and plans of school-work. In one sense, it is the influence of another form of civilization under different circumstances from those that exist in many of the older sections of our country. There appeared, too, what I characterize as an unusual precocity of intellectual and physical development in the children, which is perhaps due to climatic conditions—and this preternatural development may result in an earlier unfoldment of the mental and physical powers beyond anything we have in the colder latitudes of the United States.

No doubt causes operate more strongly in California in shaping a certain line of character than in any other section of our country, and the time may come when some critical observer will trace the effects of these conditions upon the physiological, mental, and moral qualities of the school children.

If we compare the exhibit of California with that of other states at former meetings of the Association, the comparison will not be unfavorable to the "Golden State"; yet it must be confessed that the exhibit from California, while very strong in certain branches, was only fair in others.

Hence it was uneven, and needed balancing up. That is, a school is no stronger than its weakest point. It is balancing or evening up that the schools lack in that state, and that would be secured by good supervision—supervision that reaches every school-house in the most effective manner. Too much of what is done bears the impress of random work, and this, judging from what I saw of the specimens of work, is the weak point in the California public-school system.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBITS OF THE CALIFORNIA SCHOOLS.

H. H. BELFIELD, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

The very limited time at my disposal while in San Francisco, rendered it impossible for me to do more than to give the California exhibit a hasty inspection; and I therefore hesitate to write anything concerning it, lest I should do some one injustice. With this premise, I hereby submit a brief report, in accordance with your request.

I was impressed with the *genuineness* of the exhibits of most of the cities, counties, and schools. That is, the work of an entire class, or of an entire school, seemed to be presented, irrespective of its comparative excellence. This quality of genuineness, or honesty, was further shown in the great *variety* of the work displayed, indicating, I think, the fact that there had been no preparation, months in advance, on any concerted or uniform plan, but that every school had sent whatever had been done by its pupils in their

regular work. This was, of course, very satisfactory, showing, as it did, the actual condition of the school-work far more correctly than could have been done by a few selected specimens. The work, therefore, varied greatly in degrees of excellence and in amount.

The feature that impressed me most was the growth of the manual-training idea. Work was exhibited from city and country schools, such as was not dreamed of in the philosophy of the average pedagogue a few years ago. As I have said of the work in general, this was of all kinds, almost, and of all degrees of excellence; but it showed the foothold that that idea has obtained in the California schools, and that the teachers are disposed to test the value of manual training by actual experiment.

In my judgment, the California exhibit was excellent, reflecting great credit on all concerned.

REPORT ON THE EXHIBITS OF THE EASTERN AND CENTRAL STATES.

JEAN PARKER, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.

DEAR SIR: I had intended to give, though in never so weak a way, what you asked me: "My impressions of the work exhibited here from the Eastern and Central States." But lack of faith in my own judgment has deterred me from keeping my promise. Frankly, I did not like or approve of much of the work I examined. It contained but few practical hints to anxious seekers, and I was strongly impressed with the feeling that some of the instructors must have lost sight of the education of the children—the power to see and know—and to have given much time and strength to the making of drawings and bits of hand-work as an end, spending in unimportant detail both time and energy which could better have been given to the development and expression of thought by means of pencils and devices. One mechanical drawing, I was assured, had occupied a student three hours a day for twenty-five weeks—reminding one of the so-called beautiful pieces of tapestry and other kinds of fine needle-work which used to be proudly exhibited as the result of years of application and perseverance.

Many of the more interesting features of our exhibit came from special colleges, and could not be taken as fair tests for ordinary public schools. The following are among those that presented especially fine specimens of work, which might be done in any schools of similar grade:

Model drawing, Worcester High School.

Modeling, St. Louis High School.

Color-study and graded drawing, St. Paul primary schools.

Observation-work in natural history and modeling, Cook County Normal School.

This last exhibit was particularly rich in suggesting methods.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION* ON ART EXHIBITS.

ALBERT H. MUNSELL, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on Exhibits appointed by the Department of Art Education herewith presents its report.

Since committees on industrial and manual work exist in those departments, this committee has confined itself to such schools as teach drawing as the language of form; judging the completeness and educational character of the course, and the relative excellence as shown by the exhibits.

Appended will be found a tabulated statement of the notes made by the committee on each and every exhibit, the aim being to encourage even the smallest beginnings. They are classified as public day schools, normal schools, evening schools, academies, and colleges.

Massachusetts sends five exhibits; California, four; New York, Illinois, and Missouri, two each; and Pennsylvania, Michigan, Kansas, Oregon, Minnesota, and Tennessee, one each.

Where the supervision in the high school differs from that of the lower grades, each has received a separate report.

The Public Schools.—Work in the public schools shows a marked advance over previous exhibits. The most logical and complete courses are from St. Louis, Chicago, St. Paul, Oakland, and Worcester. St. Louis excels in clay-work and object-drawing, St. Paul and Worcester in color, and Chicago in elementary design. Oakland shows remarkably good work in the development and construction of paper models. It is to be regretted that the state does not require freehand representation of the appearance of objects in connection with the geometrical work. A beginning has been made in Hays City, Kansas, which must be encouraged and supplemented by some educational system. The San Francisco public schools make excellent exhibits of map-drawing in all grades, and the work of the Broadway Grammar School in drawing directly from the living model, even in the lower grades, is unique. The Boys' High School is especially commendable for its practical methods of studying geometric problems; and the Girls' High School for careful copies from the flat. It is regretted that the object-work in this school

* See page 594.

is not as fully developed. There is a commendable lack of "copy-work" throughout the entire exhibit of the schools of Portland, Oregon. The map-drawing is good. The exhibit from Muskegon, Michigan, is quite complete, the best work being in copies from the flat. The light-and-shade work from objects in both this exhibit and the last mentioned is evidently carried on under the disadvantages of poor illumination. The exhibit of the high school of Medford, Massachusetts, shows how well machine-drawing can be executed in pencil.

Normal Schools.—Preëminent among the exhibits of the Art Department stands that of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, both for technical excellence and for the scope and completeness of its course. Beginning with a year of elementary drawing, there are classes in painting, modeling, scientific work, and the figure; while the subject of design, both elementary and applied, runs throughout the course. Students and graduates of this school are employed in so many sections of the country that it may well be called the mother of public-school instruction in industrial drawing. For a systematic and logical course, for fullness of exhibit, and for high standard of excellence, it stands unrivaled.

The Cook County exhibit is remarkable for a very unique collection of colored relief-maps, and for wood-carving. It also shows a new departure in the application of drawing to other studies.

The exhibit of the St. Louis Normal School is limited in scope, and hardly explains the *normal* character of its teaching.

Evening Schools.—The most complete exhibit is that of South Boston, Massachusetts, which shows excellent work in light and shade, and mechanical drawing. It is the only school exhibiting models in connection with ship-drafting. Worcester attempts the study of the living model, and has good architectural work. The Lincoln School, of San Francisco, has practical work in machine and architectural design.

Academies and Colleges.—The exhibit shown by Swarthmore College is worthy of mention from the fact that it is entirely devoid of the element called "show work"—everything being of a thoroughly practical character. The drawings placed upon the walls show in a clear manner the arrangement of the course, one exercise following the other in the same order that they were given to the classes. The mechanical drawings were made in connection with manual work, which unfortunately is not represented; but all the drawings except the purely scientific have been used in the shop for practical working drawings. In the freehand work the charcoal drawings are undeniably weak in some respects, but the color-work is well worthy of mention. The Mechanics' Institute of Rochester, New York, exhibits commendable work in architectural drawing, light and shade, and color. Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, alone exhibits sketches from nature, and is excellent in geometrical drawing. The Clara Conway Institute, of Mem-

phis, Tennessee, although lacking in educational sequence, shows good color-work. Livermore College, of California, has very good map-drawing.

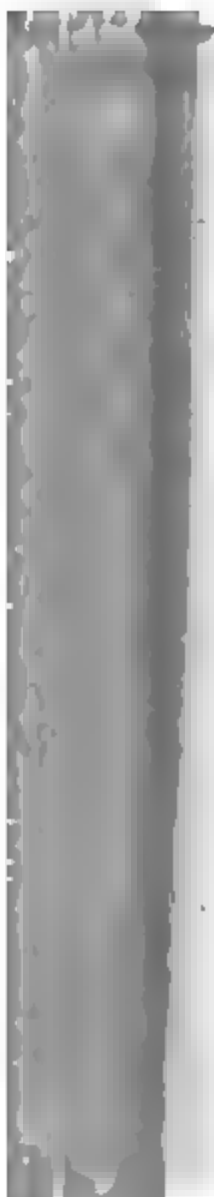
In many of the exhibits, especially those from normal schools and colleges, there seems to be a lack of system. This is a serious defect. No institution can do educational work without a logical course of instruction.

In connection with the work in light and shade the committee wish to call attention to the poor illumination under which many of the studies have been made. In order that the principles involved be clearly understood by the pupil, there must be but one direction of light. Otherwise cross-shadows, uncertainty of contour, and a lack of solidity will confuse the student.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS

FOR THE

YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1889.



1

QUAL MEMBERSHIPS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1889.

ALABAMA.

leben, Jennie De, Birmingham.	McGill, Felix, Mobile.
, Mrs. M. C., Selma.	McGill, Mary A., Mobile.
rry, Alma, Birmingham.	McGill, Sarah, Mobile.
an, Mary, Mobile.	McVoy, Mrs. M. V., Selma.
on, H. D., Tuscaloosa.	Millner, H. Key, Birmingham.
ngham, J. B., Birmingham.	Millner, Mary C., Birmingham.
l, Miss S. L., Marion,	Millner, Maud E., Birmingham.
i, Mrs. Ellen, Mobile.	Moore, Mrs. L. D., Huntsville.
erry, J. M., Montgomery.	Moss, Jessie S., Huntsville.
erry, Mrs. J. M., Montgomery.	Moss, Milton, Huntsville.
nds, Kate, Selma.	O'Neal, R. L., Huntsville.
, Louis B., Montgomery.	Parker, Mrs. M. A., Mobile.
n, Leila, Selma.	Pearson, S. B., Dadeville.
i, Jasper, Montivalo.	Phillips, J. H., Birmingham.
s, W. F., Huntsville.	Phillips, Mrs. J. H., Birmingham.
. W., Easonville.	Purser, John F., Troy.
chan, J. S., Florence.	Purser, Mrs. J. F., Troy.
Annie, Marion.	Slane, C. P., Huntsville.
L. H., Marion.	Thurston, Mattie H., Huntsville.
t, J. A. B., Huntsville.	Warren, J. K., Birmingham.
, J. A. B., jr., Huntsville.	Webb, Miss M. I., Mobile.
i, Lou, Old Spring Hill.	Woolsey, W. S., Salem.
l, Alice, Mobile.	

ARIZONA.

Annie J., Cherry.	Ketchum, Mrs. M., Quifotva.
tt, Miss E. R., Phoenix.	Lambright, D. S., Prescott.
Ed. M., Prescott.	Linton, R. T., Nogales.
Mrs. Sarah E., Prescott.	Martial, Mrs. M. C., Pinal.
ord, Mrs. M., Phoenix.	Maxson, Mrs. C. K., Clifton.
y, Mrs. L. E., Tombstone.	McDermott, Laetitia, Felix.
y, Mrs. M. F., Tombstone.	Pomroy, Nellie, Tucson.
ell, Jessie M., Tucson.	Read, W. G., Tucson.
Mrs. D. C., Tucson.	Reardon, Mrs. Anna C., Clifton.
man, S., Tucson.	Reinhert, Mrs. C. E., Yuma.
ton, Mrs. R. J., Tombstone.	Royce, L. A., Tucson.
rald, J. T., Tucson.	Salazar, Mrs. Isadora, Nogales.
rald, Master J. T., Tucson.	Seemann, P. L., Tombstone.
rald, Julia M., Tucson.	Strauss, Chas. M., Tucson.
rald, Mrs. M. A., Tucson.	Sullivan, Mary A., Cerbat.
, W. W., Tucson.	Sweeny, Mrs. H. L., Phoenix.
Julia E., Yuma.	Tevin, Mrs. J. A., Tucson.
ry, Mrs. Alice L., Tucson.	Tichenor, Mrs. G., Tucson.
ry, Lizzie, Tucson.	Warner, Mrs. F. J., Tucson.
E. W., Prescott.	Webb, Earl H., Tucson.
ock, A. K., Tucson.	Wharton, Henry L., Phoenix.
Gertrude, Tombstone.	Willson, James H., Tucson.
Mrs. L. W., Tombstone.	

ARKANSAS.

Clemons, Alice E., Little Rock.
 Clemons, Minnie, Little Rock.
 Clemons, Una D., Little Rock.
 Cravens, Jessie L., Fayetteville.
 Crowell, M. S., Rogers.
 Cunningham, Clara, Fort Smith.

Foster, M. L., Little Rock.
 Futrall, T. A., Marianna.
 McCaleb, Jas. H., Evening Shade.
 Rector, Minnie, Nashville.
 Smith, Mamye, Nashville.
 Yowell, J. G. W., Nashville.

CALIFORNIA.

Abbott, J. M., Pasadena.
 Abbott, Mrs. Emily A., Oakland.
 Abbott, Mrs. C. W., Los Angeles.
 Abbott, C. W., Los Angeles.
 Abrams, Dora L., Sacramento.
 Abrams, Miss Ray, San Diego.
 Achey, Philip, Pomona.
 Acworth, Annie, Fresno City.
 Acworth, Edith, Fresno City.
 Adams, C. B., Sissons.
 Adams, Clara A., San Francisco.
 Adams, C. T., Alhambra.
 Adams, D. Q., Madison.
 Adams, Edward F., Wrights.
 Adams, Emma E., Petaluma.
 Adams, Mrs. Ethly T., Alhambra.
 Adams, Miss G. E., San Francisco.
 Adams, Gertrude, Colton.
 Adams, Lucy F., San Francisco.
 Adams, Mary A., Etna Mills.
 Adams, Mary P., San Jose.
 Adamson, W. H., Lower Lake.
 Adelstein, Samuel, San Francisco.
 Ager, Adelia, Ager.
 Aggler, Serverusus G., Ferndale.
 Ahern, Agnes, San Francisco.
 Ahern, J. W., Bakersfield.
 Ahern, Miss M. A., San Francisco.
 Aiken, Miss A. E., San Francisco.
 Albertson, J. A., San Francisco.
 Albertson, W. T., Healdsburg.
 Albitz, Harry C., Los Angeles.
 Albrechts, Anna F., San Francisco.
 Alderson, Annie, Placerville.
 Aldrich, Miss A. F., Oakland.
 Aldrich, Lilia E., Mokelumne Hill.
 Alexander, M. H., Los Gatos.
 Alexander, Miss R., San Francisco.
 Allen, Chas. H., San Jose.
 Allen, Geo. B., Lodi.
 Allen, Ida, San Francisco.
 Allen, Miss J., San Lorenzo.
 Allen, J. J., Oakland.
 Allen, J. M., San Jose.
 Allen, Mrs. J. M., San Jose.
 Allen, Mrs. L. E., San Francisco.
 Allen, Miss M. E., Bolder.
 Allen, Mrs. M. E., Sacramento.
 Allen, Miss Oskie, San Francisco.
 Allison, Alida, Lodi.
 Alvarez, A. D., Pinole.
 Ames, G. W., San Francisco.
 Ames, Kate, Napa City.
 Ames, Stella, St. Helena.

Amoag, Dora, Haywards.
 Amos, Fannie, San Jose.
 Anderson, Carrie, San Leandro.
 Anderson, Charles G., Redding.
 Anderson, Christine, San Leandro.
 Anderson, Emily, San Francisco.
 Anderson, Miss F. A., Florence.
 Anderson, Henry, Salinas.
 Anderson, J. H., Oroville.
 Anderson, Jennie M., Sacramento.
 Anderson, John, Snider.
 Anderson, J. W., San Francisco.
 Anderson, Miss L. J., Pasadena.
 Anderson, Mrs. A. B., San Francisco.
 Anderson, Mrs. E. W., Oakland.
 Anderson, Nettie H., San Francisco.
 Anderson, W., San Francisco.
 Anderson, W. W., Oakland.
 Andrews, Mrs. R. W., West Berkeley.
 Anizer, Emilie, Napa City.
 Anthony, A. L., Yountville.
 Anthony, J. H., St. Helena.
 Apperson, Carrie, Dixon.
 Aprico, Miss E. L., San Francisco.
 Arbogast, Fred. L., Nevada City.
 Archer, S. M., Santa Rita.
 Armbruster, Miss H., San Francisco.
 Armes, William D., San Francisco.
 Armstrong, Albert M., Colusa.
 Armstrong, C. D., Hamptonville.
 Armstrong, H. G., Colusa.
 Armstrong, J. D., San Lorenzo.
 Armstrong, Lizzie, Coronado.
 Armstrong, L. P., Oakland.
 Armstrong, Nellie, San Francisco.
 Arnold, Miss E. J., San Francisco.
 Arnold, Emma, San Francisco.
 Arnold, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Arnold, Mrs. F. Adele, San Francisco.
 Arnold, Nettie, San Francisco.
 Arnott, James, Camptonville.
 Arnott, Miss L. M., Camptonville.
 Arvidson, Jennie, Placerville.
 Asbury, Mrs. O. I., San Francisco.
 Ash, Miss Ray, San Francisco.
 Asher, Mrs. Sarah H., San Diego.
 Ashley, Ella E., Martinez.
 Ashley, Mariam, Santa Cruz.
 Ashmead, Miss E. R., San Francisco.
 Ashton, Mrs. N. J., Oakland.
 Asmus, Elise, Black Diamond.
 Atkinson, Carrie A., Santa Monica.
 Atwater, Lizzie G., San Rafael.
 Augustine, M., Red Bluff.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- tine, Martha, San Rafael.
 Cecilia, San Francisco.
 , Annie, Santa Cruz.
 , J. Oliver, Davis Creek.
 , J. S., Santa Rosa.
 , M. A., Santa Cruz.
 , Mrs. A. S., Los Angeles.
 , Carrie L., San Jose.
 , E. E., Sacramento.
 , J. H., San Francisco.
 Henry, Berkeley.
 Mrs. H. G., East Oakland.
 Mrs. Mary J., West Oakland.
 ck, H. C., Marysville.
 ck, L. W., Ukiah.
 ck, M., San Francisco.
 ck, W. S., Vallejo.
 Erika, von, San Francisco.
 lder, T. F., Lunol Glen.
 r, Mrs. Lellu, Gilroy.
 , H. G., Alamo.
 , Joseph F., San Francisco.
 , Melissa, Dixon.
 , Mrs. M. C., Vallejo.
 n, Mrs. Wm. S., Lower Lake.
 , A. A., Martinez.
 , Alice, Alameda.
 , Clara B., Vacaville.
 , Ella M., Juliasi.
 , Lizzie H., Ferndale.
 , Mary J., Placerville.
 ridge, J. C., Sacramento.
 ridge, Mrs. A. C., Covelo.
 E. E., Lodi.
 Lillian M., National City.
 , A. E., Los Angeles.
 , Miss D., San Francisco.
 , Hugh, San Francisco.
 , J. Rio., Antioch.
 , Kate E., Antioch.
 , Mary, South Pasadena.
 , Martha D., Oakland.
 , Matilda E., Soquel.
 , Mrs. S. C., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. F. E., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. H. C., Oakland.
 , Sarah M., Oakdale.
 n, Edwin S., Farmersville.
 Mrs. L. A., Oakland.
 dge, Mrs. B. L., San Bernardino.
 in, Bertha C., Cordelia.
 in, F. D., Santa Cruz.
 in, N. S., San Francisco.
 in, W. T., Camptonville.
 in, Mrs. O. D., San Francisco.
 Alice, Pasadena.
 Elma, Pasadena.
 Mattie C., Ocean Side.
 d, Mrs. Carrie, Santa Rosa.
 , George A., Visalia.
 s, Kate M., Stockton.
 s, Mamie L., Stockton.
 , Mrs. A. L., East Los Angeles.
 Banks, J. F., San Francisco.
 Banning, B. R., San Francisco.
 Banning, Mrs. F. A., San Francisco.
 Bannon, Miss B. C., San Francisco.
 Bannon, Maggie F., San Francisco.
 Bantz, Mary C., Yuba.
 Bar, Mrs. Fannie, Fort Jones.
 Barber, Miss E. J., San Francisco.
 Barber, Mabel H., Alameda.
 Barber, Mrs. M. A., San Francisco.
 Barker, Albert C., Stockton.
 Barker, E. W., Oakland.
 Barker, S. A., San Jose.
 Barkhaus, Mrs. M. A., Lincoln.
 Barkley, Lena, Chico.
 Barkley, Minnie A., Sacramento.
 Barlow, Ada S., Mayfield.
 Barlow, Miss C. B., San Francisco.
 ● Barnes, C. E., Denver.
 Barnes, M. E., San Francisco.
 Barnes, Mary J., St. Helena.
 Barnes, Mrs. S. P., Blacka.
 Barr, Mrs. H., San Francisco.
 Barrett, Jennie A., San Francisco.
 Barrett, Maggie G., San Francisco.
 Barrows, Laura M., San Francisco.
 Barrows, Mable F., Arroyo Grande.
 Barry, Agnes P., San Francisco.
 Barry, C. M., Vallejo.
 Barry, D., San Francisco.
 Barry, Miss M. E., San Francisco.
 Barry, Miss M. C., San Francisco.
 Barry, T. J., Grass Valley.
 Bartlett, E. F., San Francisco.
 Barton, Clara, Ferndale.
 Barton, Rose V., San Diego.
 Bass, Mamie J., Livermore.
 Bassett, Kate N., Vacaville.
 Bassett, Mary E., Pasadena.
 Bassett, Mrs. M. L., Sacramento.
 Bast, Hattie L., Eureka.
 Batchelder, Kate C., San Francisco.
 Bateman, D. T., Mountain View.
 Bateman, Mrs. Josephine A., Mt'n View.
 Batten, Mary, San Francisco.
 Baugh, A. E., Washington.
 Baumgardener, Mrs. E. M., San Francisco.
 Baur, Robert, Madison.
 Baxley, Alice V., Fruit Vale.
 Baxter, Lizzie M., Yuba City.
 Baxter, Minnie H., Los Angeles.
 Bayless, Sarah, San Francisco.
 Bayley, Josie, Oakland.
 Beala, Mrs. C. R., San Francisco.
 Bean, W. A., Woodland.
 Beane, Mrs. Colin M., San Francisco.
 Beaverton, Mrs. Alice H., San Francisco.
 Beaverton, George, San Francisco.
 Beard, J. N., Napa City.
 Beardley, E. P., San Francisco.
 Beatty, James G., Browne's Valley.
 Bechell, Laura, San Jose.
 Beckwith, Carrie, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Beckham, Lizzie L., Nicolaus.
 Beem, Anna C., Fort Jones.
 Beers, Mrs. S. A., West Oakland.
 Beggs, Birdie, Sacramento.
 Behrens, Louise, Dixon.
 Belcher, Alice J., Cosumnes.
 Belcher, E. A., San Francisco.
 Belding, Mrs. Mary L., San Francisco.
 Bell, James W., San Gregorio.
 Bell, Mrs. J. L., Roberts.
 Bellina, Carrie, Haywards.
 Bellmer, Carrie L., Sacramento.
 Betts, Lizzie, Oakland.
 Bendit, Pauline, San Francisco.
 Bengough, Miss E., Los Angeles.
 Benn, Mary E., Gilroy.
 Bennett, Clara, Chico.
 Bennett, Edith, Kernville.
 Bennett, Eva, San Jose.
 Bennett, Frances E., Los Angeles.
 Bennett, Giora F., San Jose.
 Bennett, Ida M., San Bernardino.
 Bennett, John B., Salinas City.
 Bennett, Mary E., Berkeley.
 Bennett, Mary H., San Bernardino.
 Bennett, S. St. John, Salinas City.
 Benson, Laura E., Petaluma.
 Benson, Mattie, Petaluma.
 Bently, George H., San Jose.
 Bently, Miss L. E., Oakland.
 Bently, Mary, Mills Seminary.
 Bently, Mrs. W. R., Oakland.
 Beon, Lotta, San Francisco.
 Berger, Lillian, Oakland.
 Berger, R., Anderson.
 Bernard, Lizzie M., Sacramento.
 Berry, R. A., Nicolaus.
 Betancue, A., Oakland.
 Betancue, Lizzie C., Oakland.
 Bettinger, M. C., Los Angeles.
 Bevering, Miss S. M., Los Angeles.
 Bice, May F., Willets.
 Bickford, Grace M., Elk Creek.
 Bidwell, John, Chico.
 Bigelow, Mrs. S. M., San Francisco.
 Bigelow, Mrs. C. J., San Francisco.
 Bigelow, Mrs. S. H., San Francisco.
 Biggerstaff, Norine, Middletown.
 Bills, Rebecca A., East Oakland.
 Bingham, George K., Red Bluff.
 Bingin, Ella, Ione.
 Birch, W. A., Walsh Station.
 Bith, Mrs. Agnes H., San Francisco.
 Bixby, Mrs. Dr., Watsonville.
 Board, Mrs. Jessie, San Francisco.
 Bockrath, Etta M., Sacramento.
 Bockrus, Mrs. A. D., Orange.
 Black, Mrs. Julia, San Juan.
 Blackburn, Mrs. Alice, San Buenaventura.
 Blackburn, Mrs. H. M., Santa Cruz.
 Blackler, Lydia H., Mills Seminary.
 Blackstaff, Miss M. D., San Francisco.
 Blackwood, Lucy B., Oakland.
 Blackwood, Robert, Oakland.
 Blaine, Cora A., San Jose.
 Blair, C. H., Visalia.
 Blake, Chas. M., San Francisco.
 Blake, Helen M., Oakland.
 Blake, Laura M., San Francisco.
 Blake, Mrs. M. K., Oakland.
 Blake, Susie M., Vacaville.
 Blanchard, M. E., San Francisco.
 Blandling, Mrs. H. H., San Francisco.
 Blankman, H. H.
 Bledsoe, S. A., Healdsburg.
 Bledsoe, Sophie, Healdsburg.
 Bliss, Annie, Placerville.
 Bliss, May A., Santa Cruz.
 Blitz, Mrs. Caroline, San Francisco.
 Bliven, Miss F. M., San Francisco.
 Bloch, Bertha, San Francisco.
 Bloch, Mrs. J., San Francisco.
 Blochman, L. E., Santa Maria.
 Blodgett, Mrs. C. A., North Temescal.
 Blodgett, Ida, Woodbridge.
 Blood, Maud, Chico.
 Bloomer, Mrs. A. C., Haywards.
 Blue, Thos. P., You Bet.
 Blunt, Lena, Shasta.
 Blunt, Millie, Shasta.
 Blythe, Margaret, West Oakland.
 Bodler, Mrs. H. E., San Francisco.
 Boehm, Tracy, Stockton.
 Boke, George H., Nelson.
 Boland, Miss Joanna M., San Francisco.
 Boman, Paul, Bloomfield.
 Bondshee, Chas. F., San Jose.
 Bones, L. F., San Francisco.
 Bonestill, L. F., San Francisco.
 Boniface, Sara, San Francisco.
 Bonkofsky, Rose, San Francisco.
 Bonkofsky, R. M., San Francisco.
 Bonnard, M., San Francisco.
 Bonnelly, Mrs. E. S., San Francisco.
 Bonneau, Thos. S., San Rafael.
 Borne, Cara M., Danville.
 Boone, Eloise, Lakeport.
 Boone, Laird, Danville.
 Boone, Mrs. P. R., Berkeley.
 Boone, P. R., Berkeley.
 Booter, Josephine, Riverside.
 Booth, Ella N., San Francisco.
 Booth, Lena, San Mateo.
 Booth, Lucius A., Oakland.
 Boothe, Nellie, Napa City.
 Bossé, Bertha, San Francisco.
 Bossé, Laura, San Francisco.
 Bosworth, Mrs. M. C., San Francisco.
 Bartholomew, Mrs. E. M., Oakland.
 Botsford, Lucy E., San Jose.
 Bours, William M., Stockton.
 Bowling, Mallie, Afton.
 Bowman, Gordon, Newbert.
 Bowman, James, Newbert.
 Bowman, L., San Francisco.
 Boyd, Amelia, Cottonwood.

CALIFORNIA--CONTINUED.

J. C., San Bernardino.
 Samuel A., San Francisco.
 on, Lillian M., Grass Valley.
 Mary I., San Francisco.
 ary, Mrs. M. G., Oakland.
 ary, Vesta E., San Francisco.
 ock, D. W., Oroville.
 i. Helen, Red Bluff.
 eld, Mrs. C. P., Los Angeles.
 ord, M. V., San Francisco.
 ord, Mrs. M., East Oakland.
 y, C. B., Oakland.
 y, Martha, Nevada City.
 y, Mary, Purissima.
 y, N. O., Visalia.
 aw, Hallie, University.
 Miss K. E., San Francisco.
 Ada A. H., San Francisco.
 Elizabeth, San Francisco.
 Mary J., San Francisco.
 J. H., San Diego.
 n, Lillian, Healdsburg.
 n, Mary, Healdsburg.
 i, L. C., San Francisco.
 i, Mrs. L. O., San Francisco.
 W. R., San Buenaventura.
 Miss L. F., San Francisco.
 Helen E., Oakland.
 ove, C. W., San Diego.
 Mabel E., Oakland.
 Bertha M., San Francisco.
 , Annie W., Oakland.
 er, Mrs. Sarah J., San Francisco.
 gle, Nellie M., Madera.
 Laura E., San Francisco.
 s, Mrs. H. R., Grass Valley.
 ord, Neva, Colusa.
 Kittie, Sacramento.
 , Alfred, Sacramento.
 m, Alma S., Pasadena.
 rd, Mrs. K. A., Shasta.
 Mrs. E. A., Riverside.
 Mrs. S. S., Livermore.
 i, Mattie V., Sutter City.
 Mrs. E. E., Gilroy.
 nan, Clara A., San Francisco.
 i, Mrs. K., San Francisco.
 y, Kate, Upper Valley.
 n, Mrs. F. P., San Francisco.
 , Lucy A., Sacramento.
 , Lillie B., Marysville.
 , Elisha, San Francisco.
 , Mrs. E., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. J. N., Oakland.
 Addie, Azusa.
 Alma, Biggs.
 Artie, Covelo.
 Belle C., San Rafael.
 C. L., Sweetland.
 Emma H., San Francisco.
 Fannie C., Davis.
 Floribel C., Centerville.
 Mrs. F. E., Chico.

Brown, F. R., Madera.
 Brown, Geo. J., Covelo.
 Brown, Georgia B., Woodbridge.
 Brown, Miss I., San Francisco.
 Brown, I. Sue, Gilroy.
 Brown, James B., Eureka.
 Brown, Kate, Sweetland.
 Brown, L. L., San Francisco.
 Brown, Lillie A., Los Angeles.
 Brown, Lou E., San Francisco.
 Brown, Mary J., Centerville.
 Brown, Mattie A., Horlitos.
 Brown, Mercie E., Santa Barbara.
 Brown, Minnie E., Plymouth.
 Brown, Mollie, Sacramento.
 Brown, M. L., San Francisco.
 Brown, Nina, San Francisco.
 Brown, R., Montague.
 Brown, Susie M., San Lucas.
 Brown, Thomas, Sweetland.
 Bruce, Miss V., San Francisco.
 Bruch, Louis, San Jose.
 Bruch, Louise, San Jose.
 Bruch, Mrs. Louis, San Jose.
 Bryan, Luella H., Orange.
 Bryant, Minnie F., Calistoga.
 Bryson, Jennie, Georgetown.
 Buck, May, Oakville.
 Buckeleir, Minnie E., Oakland.
 Buckham, Mary H., Compton.
 Buckholz, Miss M. Von, San Francisco.
 Buckley, Annie, San Jose.
 Buckley, Emma B., San Jose.
 Buckelud, Mary F., Oakland.
 Buckman, Miss M., Rutherford.
 Buckra, Josie, Santa Cruz.
 Buhner, Lotta, Oakland.
 Buhring, Hattie, North San Juan.
 Buja, Cora, San Francisco.
 Bull, Mary D., Oakland.
 Bullard, Carrie, Red Bluff.
 Bullock, Blanche H., Eureka.
 Buncce, Mrs. E. A., Dougherty Station.
 Bund, J. G., Angels.
 Bundscher, Mrs. Chas., San Francisco.
 Bunker, C. R., San Francisco.
 Bunker, Fannie, San Francisco.
 Bunnell, G. W., Berkeley.
 Bunker, Beattie C., East Oakland.
 Bunting, Joe, N., San Francisco.
 Burford, H. R., Kingsburg.
 Burgeon, Lena A., San Francisco.
 Burge, Mrs. J. A., Oakland.
 Burgess, Herbert, Alameda.
 Burge, E. M., San Francisco.
 Burke, Hannah, Mendocino.
 Burke, Miss J. A., San Francisco.
 Burke, Mrs. J. K., San Francisco.
 Burke, Mrs. M. B., San Francisco.
 Burke, Susan D., San Francisco.
 Burnett, H. D., Los Angeles.
 Burnett, Mrs. W. C., San Francisco.
 Burnett, Anna D., Santa Rosa.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Burnham, Miss C., San Francisco.
 Burnham, Lucretia, San Francisco.
 Burnham, Mrs. Mary E., Placerville.
 Burns, Mary F., San Jose.
 Burns, R. F., Auburn.
 Burr, C. Cecilia, Berkeley.
 Burrall, Jesse E., Oakland.
 Burrell, A. W., Oakland.
 Burrows, Mertie, Oakland.
 Burston, Selina, Los Angeles.
 Burt, Fannie, Amadis City.
 Burt, Mary Clara, San Jose.
 Burton, C. O., San Francisco.
 Bush, Jennie R., Larabee.
 Bush, Lizzie, San Francisco.
 Bush, Mrs. A. E., San Jose.
 Bush, R. E., Berkeley.
 Bush, S., San Pedro.
 Bush, Walter M., San Francisco.
 Bussenius, Lillie, St. Helena.
 Butler, Mrs. C. H., Forestville.
 Butler, Mrs. E. L., Folsom.
 Butler, R. D., San Diego.
 Butts, Frank A., South Vallejo.
 Butts, Mrs. F. A., South Vallejo.
 Byrne, Julia, Santa Rosa.
 Buzzo, M. G., San Jose.
 Byrod, Mrs. Sarah B., Oakland.
 Cadman, Hervey W., San Francisco.
 Cahalin, G. H., San Francisco.
 Caldwell, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 Calef, Mrs. H. S., San Francisco.
 Califf, Emma V., Temescal.
 Calhoun, C. H., Santa Rosa.
 Callahan, Kate F., San Francisco.
 Callahan, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Calloway, S. M., Courtland.
 Camblein, Mrs. D. A., San Francisco.
 Camp, Alice, San Jose.
 Campbell, Annie B., San Francisco.
 Campbell, Amy T., San Francisco.
 Campbell, Cornelia E., San Francisco.
 Campbell, C. W., San Diego.
 Campbell, Fred M., Oakland.
 Campbell, Grace, Oakland.
 Campbell, Joseph, Petaluma.
 Campbell, Mrs. L. H., Oakland.
 Campbell, Mary I., San Francisco.
 Campbell, Mary M., Oakland.
 Campbell, Ruth G., San Francisco.
 Camper, H. W., Chico.
 Cany, Alice A., Fresno.
 Canham, M. J., San Francisco.
 Cannon, Ellen, Columbia.
 Canty, J. M., Visalia.
 Capp, A. B., San Francisco.
 Cappelman, Cornelia, Santa Cruz.
 Carey, Agnes A., San Francisco.
 Carlton, Mrs. S. B., San Francisco.
 Carlin, Eva B., Berkeley.
 Carlisle, Mrs. E. M., San Francisco.
 Carlock, Mrs. Lizzie, Fort Jones.
 Carlock, Nellie, Fort Jones.
 Carlton, H. P., Oakland.
 Carmichael, Emeline, Martinez.
 Carpenter, D. S., Clayton.
 Carpenter, Miss Maia, Riverside.
 Carpenter, W. R., Windsor.
 Carr, F. S., Marysville.
 Carr, George T., Elk Grove.
 Carr, Hattie, San Francisco.
 Carr, Mary A., Eureka.
 Carr, Maggie E., Rohnerville.
 Carr, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 Carr, Mrs. Jennie C., Pasadena.
 Carr, Seymour, Conley.
 Carrick, Leona, East Oakland.
 Carrington, Marie, Sacramento.
 Carrol, Laura, Grand Island.
 Carroll, William, Cosumnes.
 Carson, Lizzie, San Francisco.
 Carson, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Carson, Mrs. Nellie E., San Pablo.
 Carter, H., San Francisco.
 Carter, Lena, Oakland.
 Carter, N. A., Oakland.
 Carter, Mrs. Rebecca T., San Francisco.
 Carver, Mrs. L. M., San Francisco.
 Carville, Henrietta E., Yokohl.
 Cary, T. P., San Leandro.
 Case, E. L., Downieville.
 Casey, J. P., Port Costa.
 Casey, Miss K. I., San Francisco.
 Casey, Kate M., San Andreas.
 Casey, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Casey, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Casey, May, San Francisco.
 Cashin, M. G., San Francisco.
 Casterline, E. D., Hornetis.
 Casterline, J. B., Arcata.
 Castelhum, M. A., San Francisco.
 Catlin, A. G., San Francisco.
 Caughey, Sarah, Manchester.
 Cavanaugh, Emma, Sacramento.
 Cavanaugh, Maggie, Sacramento.
 Cerbury, Mrs. Phoebe, San Francisco.
 Chace, Mrs. Melissa E., Alameda.
 Chadmons, Lucy, Oakland.
 Chadwick, A. M., Oakland.
 Chalmers, Annie B., San Francisco.
 Chalmers, Mrs. J. C., San Francisco.
 Chamberlain, W. H., San Francisco.
 Chambers, S. A., Oakland.
 Chandler, Kate A., San Francisco.
 Chandler, J. F., East Oakland.
 Chapell, Emily, San Francisco.
 Chapin, F. W., Oroville.
 Chapin, Mrs. N. A., Oroville.
 Chapman, Mrs. B., Stockton.
 Chapman, Florence A., Sacramento.
 Chapman, Henry Wilfred, Berkeley.
 Chapman, Mrs. Mary L., Los Angeles.
 Chapman, W. A., Fort Jones.
 Chappellet, F., Forest Hill.
 Charles, Mrs. C. W., San Jose.
 Chase, Alice L., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- . C., Irvington.
 ., San Francisco.
 ., Stockton.
 John M., Vallejo.
 . R., San Francisco.
 Martha E., Santa Rosa.
 . F., Ceres.
 Miss M., San Francisco.
 Mrs. Mary L., San Francisco.
 Warren, San Francisco.
 Addie C., San Francisco.
 J. G., Oakland.
 . Clay C., Visalia.
 . W., San Jose.
 Matie B., San Francisco.
 D. W., Napa City.
 ., L. J., San Jose.
 ., Mrs. L. J., San Jose.
 ., Mary F., Bryson.
 E. B., San Francisco.
 Lillian, San Jose.
 Mrs. Belle, Oakland.
 Emma F., Oakland.
 Lillie L., San Francisco.
 N., Knight's Ferry.
 ., Mrs. J., Yreka.
 I., Jennie C., San Jose.
 I., Mrs. S. J., San Jose.
 Millie A., Camptonville.
 e, Rose V., San Francisco.
 J., San Francisco.
 bert, Livermore.
 mie, San Francisco.
 ora, Nevada City.
 ra, D. C., Santa Cruz.
 orcan, San Francisco.
 H., Los Angeles.
 attie, Willows.
 C, Santa Cruz.
 ra K. F., San Francisco.
 uttie K., San Francisco.
 Emma L., Willows.
 I. F., Breunwood.
 L. M., San Francisco.
 . Ed., M. Eden.
 Iadge, San Francisco.
 . Mary F., Santa Rosa.
 Ida M., San Francisco.
 Ida W., Yreka.
 Jas. M., Ukiah.
 Mary L., Whitesboro.
 Chas. W., Sierra Madre.
 Mrs. G., Alameda.
 J. E. A., San Francisco.
 J. Lucy, Ukiah.
 n. Edith, Oroville.
 mie, San Francisco.
 ra, M. J., San Francisco.
 aude, Oakland.
 Edith L., San Francisco.
 elia B., Oakland.
 . W. F., Eureka.
 Mrs. Ida A., Oakland.
 Coates, Rosa E., Sacramento.
 Cobb, Mrs. I. P., East Oakland.
 Coburn, L. F., Crescent City.
 Cochran, Annie, Bodie.
 Cochran, R. S., Mariposa.
 Coe, John R., Napa City.
 Coffey, A. B., Sutter City.
 Coffman, Jennie A., San Jose.
 Coffman, P. H., Red Bluff.
 Coghlan, Kate, San Francisco.
 Cohen, Alice H., Alameda.
 Cohen, E., San Francisco.
 Cohen, Minnie, San Francisco.
 Cohen, Nettie, San Francisco.
 Colby, George E., Berkeley.
 Colby, Julia C., Benicia.
 Colby, Julia E., San Francisco.
 Cole, Belle, Antioch.
 Cole, Mrs. Franc E., San Francisco.
 Cole, H. D., San Francisco.
 Cole, James C., Antioch.
 Cole, Jenella P., San Bernardino.
 Cole, L. C., San Francisco.
 Cole, M. A., San Francisco.
 Cole, Mina, Gilroy.
 Coleby, M., Petaluma.
 Coleby, Phoebe S., Petaluma.
 Colehan, E. A., Livermore.
 Colehan, Mary J., Livermore.
 Colehower Jessie, Watsonville.
 Coleman, Annie L., Lodi.
 Coleman, Amelia C., Beckwith.
 Coleman, Mrs. D. M., Shasta.
 Coleman, F. E., San Francisco.
 Coleman, Mrs. Theo., Pasadena.
 Colley, James F., San Francisco.
 Collins, Mary, San Francisco.
 Collins, M. B., San Francisco.
 Colwell, Mrs. E. R., East Oakland.
 Comady Silas, Clay.
 Combs, M. Sue, Lakeport.
 Combs, Sallie C., Visalia.
 Compton, Mary L., Fowler.
 Condict, Elliot J., San Francisco.
 Condict, Mrs. Elliot J., San Francisco.
 Condon, Mary A., Maybert.
 Congden, E. R., Berkeley.
 Congden, Georgietta N., East Oakland.
 Congdon, J. S., Vallejo.
 Congdon, Merton J., Berkeley.
 Conger, Flory E., Chico.
 Conklin, Kate, San Francisco.
 Conklin, Wm., San Francisco.
 Conley, Juanita V., Petaluma.
 Connell, R. I., San Francisco.
 Connelly, Emma J., San Francisco.
 Conner, G. S., Capay.
 Conners, M. E., Oakland.
 Conners, Maggie E., Oakland.
 Conover, Flora, Hollister.
 Conrad, Francis W., Santa Barbara.
 Conrad, Louisa J., Sacramento.
 Conroy, Nellie, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

Conway, Nora, San Francisco.
 Cook, Albert S., Berkeley.
 Cook, Cassie, Benicia.
 Cook, Mary A., Los Angeles.
 Cook, Mary, Comanche.
 Cook, Minnie F., Sonoma.
 Cook, Nellie, Oakland.
 Cook, W. F., Forest Hill.
 Cooke, W., San Francisco.
 Cooke, Mrs. W. H., Oakland.
 Cooley, Kate, Etna.
 Cooley, Nellie, San Jose.
 Cooley, Sarah, Beswick.
 Cooney, Ella, Los Angeles.
 Cooney, Ellen, San Francisco.
 Cooney, Kate, Los Angeles.
 Coons, W. W., Sacramento.
 Cooper, Mrs. C. A., San Francisco.
 Cooper, Mrs. E. Bruce, San Francisco.
 Cooper, Harriett, San Francisco.
 Cooper, J. D., San Francisco.
 Cooper, May, San Celisto.
 Cooper, Sarah B., San Francisco.
 Cooper, Susan V., Phillipsville.
 Cooper, W. W., Centerville.
 Copeland, Lawrence, Fresno City.
 Copsey, Reise, Lower Lake.
 Corbell, S. E., San Francisco.
 Corbell, Sarah L., San Francisco.
 Corbett, Ada E., Vallejo.
 Corcoran, Alice C., Mariposa.
 Cordes, Anna A., Alameda.
 Core, Mattie S., Los Alamus.
 Corkery, M., San Francisco.
 Corliss, H. E., West Oakland.
 Cornell, S., Suisun.
 Corrigall, John W., Georgetown.
 Corrigan, William, Vallejo.
 Cory, Hattie, San Jose.
 Cory, Mrs. S. W., San Francisco.
 Cory, Susie, San Jose.
 Cory, B. B., San Jose.
 Cosner, Robert, Colusa.
 Cosner, Mrs. Lydia C., Colusa.
 Cothran, A. L., Merced.
 Cotrel, Amy E., San Francisco.
 Cotter, R. G., San Jose.
 Cottle, Fannie A., San Jose.
 Cottle, Lizzie C., San Jose.
 Cottrell, Emma, Woodland.
 Coudron, Mrs. D. B., Oakland.
 Coulon, Helen D., San Francisco.
 Coult, E. Amelia, Marysville.
 Cove, Emily A., San Francisco.
 Cowan, Estelle, Los Angeles.
 Cowan, L. Annie, San Francisco.
 Cowan, Mary, Los Angeles.
 Cowdrey, W. A., Merced.
 Cowie, Lottie, Modesto.
 Cowley, Florence A., San Francisco.
 Cox, Alberta B., Watsonville.
 Cox, H. E., Santa Cruz.
 Cox, Maggie, Watsonville.

Cox, M. M., San Francisco.
 Cozens, C. B., Stockton.
 Cozzens, Kate M., San Jose.
 Cozzens, Mrs. J. A., Oakland.
 Craig, E. M., San Francisco.
 Craigham, Lily, Hornitas.
 Crain, Della, Gridley.
 Crane, Emily W., San Francisco.
 Crane, F. B., Marysville.
 Crane, Mrs. A. C., Laurel.
 Crane, G. H., Oakland.
 Craven, Nettie R., San Francisco.
 Crawford, Addie S., Livermore.
 Crawford, C. M., Upper.
 Crawford, Mrs. J., San Francisco.
 Crawford, Lucy E., Oakland.
 Crawford, T. O., Oakland.
 Creed, Thomas E., Dunsmuir.
 Creed, Walter M., Mott.
 Creighton, S. G., Vacaville.
 Cress, C. W., Elmira.
 Crichton, Florence A., San Jose.
 Crittenden, Mary A., San Francisco.
 Crittenden, May, San Jose.
 Crittenden, Nellie, San Jose.
 Crocker, Belle N., San Francisco.
 Crocker, G. R., Centerville.
 Crofton, Emma, Bird's Landing.
 Crofton, Emma, Binghamton.
 Crofts, F. E., Salinas.
 Cromwell, Mrs. B. S., Redding.
 Cronkhite, E. B., Hill's Ferry.
 Cronkhite, Kate M., Hill's Ferry.
 Crooks, E. W., Santa Barbara.
 Crooks, J. E., Benicia.
 Crookshank, Samuel A., Visalia.
 Cross, B. F., Oroville.
 Cross, J. T., Antelope.
 Cross, Mrs. T. K., Sacramento.
 Cross, Lillian A., Antelope.
 Crough, D. W., Independence.
 Croughwell, Annie F., San Francisco.
 Crow, Mrs. J. A., Stockton.
 Crowell, C. H., Grass Valley.
 Crowell, Lily M., Sacramento.
 Crowley, E. H., San Francisco.
 Crowley, K. H., San Francisco.
 Crowley, L. E., San Francisco.
 Crowley, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Crump, Emma, Lake Port.
 Crump, Nadine, Long Beach.
 Cuddleback, Edson W., Bullard's Bar.
 Cuddleback, Frankie, Rohnerville.
 Cullen, Jennie, San Francisco.
 Cullen, L. N., San Francisco.
 Cullen, L. R., San Francisco.
 Culverwell, Alice S., Santa Cruz.
 Cummings, David, San Francisco.
 Cummings, Harry C., San Francisco.
 Cummings, Laura J., Fort Jones.
 Cunningham, James, Plainsburg.
 Cunningham, Mrs. C. E., Alameda.
 Curran, Mrs. A. H., Fresno.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

., Freeport.
 . J., Fresno.
 cie, San Francisco.
 . L., Spadra.
 aggie H., San Francisco.
 . F., Spadra.
 rgaret B., San Francisco.
 mie, San Francisco.
 rgaret E., San Francisco.
 tta, San Francisco.
 la, San Francisco.
 ttie I., San Francisco.
 s. A. C., Sacramento.
 anda, Pasadena.
 M., San Francisco.
 lia, Pasadena.
 len M., San Francisco.
 ily, San Francisco.
 llie, Nevada City.
 ttie, Nevada City.
 Alice L., San Francisco.
 allia J., Savana.
 W. E., San Juan.
 John, Visalia.
 y, Eureka.
 ian J., Santa Cruz.
 M., Lafayette.
 ., Napa.
 ie, Hollister.
 ina M., Clinton.
 arles, San Francisco.
 s. Anna M., Oakland.
 Minnie I., Vallejo.
 nie E., Sattley.
 ., A. A., San Francisco.
 ohn, San Francisco.
 aura, Gorman's Station.
 ary, Nevada City.
 . W., San Francisco.
 rs. S. B., San Francisco.
 ez, Rosa, Sutter Creek.
 lia, San Francisco.
 Gustave A., San Francisco.
 ice M., San Francisco.
 nie R., Oakland.
 rs. Adelaide, San Francisco.
 ., Elk Grove.
 . Julia, Soquel.
 Cassie A., San Diego.
 Charles, Belmont.
 Mrs. M., San Francisco.
 sper M., Arcata.
 Y., Selma.
 . W., Callahans.
 rie, San Francisco.
 a R., Sacramento.
 San Francisco.
 ette, San Francisco.
 ., Arcata.
 e M., Livermore.
 zie, Klinknerville.
 ry E., Dobbin's Ranch.
 . A. G., San Francisco.

Davis, Mrs. F. V., San Francisco.
 Davis, Rachel M., Klinknerville.
 Davis, R. N., Orange.
 Davis, Rosa A., Orange.
 Davis, S. A., Smartsville.
 Davis, Sarah A., Graniteville.
 Davisson, Frances, Suisun.
 Day, Eulalia A., San Francisco.
 Deal, Mrs. L. B., San Francisco.
 Deamer, W. W., Berkeley.
 Deane, Mrs. M., San Francisco.
 Dearborn, Lydia, School-House Station.
 De Boom, R. C., Napa City.
 Deck, Alice, Dixon.
 Decker, C. W., San Francisco.
 De Laguna, A., Oakland.
 De Laguna, F., Oakland.
 De Lay, Daniel J., San Francisco.
 Delnan, Emma, Stockton.
 Demorest, Katie E., Benicia.
 Denis, Mary S., San Francisco.
 Denis, Sarah A., San Francisco.
 Denman, James, San Francisco.
 Denman, Mrs. M. M., San Francisco.
 Dennett, Ida M., Santa Cruz.
 Dennis, Kate, Pope Valley.
 Denney, Wilhelmina, San Jose.
 Denny, Mary, Callahans.
 Denton, Joey, San Jose.
 Depue, J. E., Oakland.
 Derby, I. E., San Francisco.
 Derrich, Alice L., San Francisco.
 Derry, Annie E., Napa City.
 Desmonde, Frances A., San Francisco.
 Dettenrieder, Mrs. L. M., Oakland.
 Dewing, A. A., East Oakland.
 De Wolf, Flora, Los Gatos.
 De Wolf, Jesse, Spadra.
 Dexter, Mrs. H. W., Woodland.
 De Zaldo, Mollie E., Salinas.
 Dibble, Delle, Soquel.
 Dickinson, Evelyn, Mills College.
 Dickson, E., Auburn.
 Dickson, J. M., Ferndale.
 Dickson, W. O., Alameda.
 Diggs, Kate M., San Francisco.
 Digges, Lizzie M., Halfmoon Bay.
 Dillingham, W. K., Ukiah.
 Dilts, Joseph, Forest Hill.
 Dingle, C. E., Woodland.
 Dinning, T. H., Stockton.
 Dittmer, Elizabeth, San Francisco.
 Dixon, Anna E., St. Helena.
 Dixon, Bessie, San Francisco.
 Dixon, C. L., San Francisco.
 Dixon, Emma, Menlo Park.
 Dixon, Jennie, Bakersfield.
 Doan, Agnes C., Gilroy.
 Doan, Hattie A., Stockton.
 Doan, Lizzie, Stockton.
 Doans, Mrs. Charles, San Francisco.
 Dockstader, L. S., San Francisco.
 Dodge, Florence, Stockton.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Dodson, Nellie, Red Bluff.
 Doheney, Lulu, San Diego.
 Doherty, Emma, San Francisco.
 Doherty, Kate, Salinas.
 Doherty, Maggie, Salinas.
 Dohrman, Mrs. Charles, Stockton.
 Dohrman, Mrs. Elizabeth, San Francisco.
 Doig, J. R., San Diego.
 Doig, Mrs. J. R., San Diego.
 Dolan, Mary, San Francisco.
 Dole, Julia, Oakland.
 Dolman, Annie, Fruit Vale.
 Donahue, Mrs. L. E., San Francisco.
 Donnelly, Laura L., Colusa.
 Donnelly, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Donnelly, M. Louise, San Francisco.
 Donnelly, Sara F., San Francisco.
 Donoho, Mrs. Mary E., Vacaville.
 Donovan, Ellen, San Francisco.
 Doom, Fannie, Grass Valley.
 Doran, Julia A., San Francisco.
 Doran, M. E., San Francisco.
 Dore, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Dore, John S., Fresno.
 Dore, Mrs. John S., Fresno.
 Dorn, G. W., Chico.
 Dornberger, Albert L., Mayfield.
 Dornberger, Victor, Mayfield.
 Dorsey, Mrs. F. E., San Francisco.
 Dougherty, Kate, Salinas City.
 Dougherty, Maggie, Salinas City.
 Douglas, Belle, San Francisco.
 Douglas, Effie, San Francisco.
 Dow, M. Clinton, Lodi.
 Dower, Mary A., San Andreas.
 Dowling, Annie, Moore's Flat.
 Dowling, Anna H., Moore's Flat.
 Dowling, Cassie A., Yreka.
 Dowling, Kattie E., San Francisco.
 Dowling, Nora, San Francisco.
 Downey, Mary L., San Francisco.
 Downey, Thomas, Modesto.
 Downing, Ida, Biggs.
 Downs, Blanch L., San Jose.
 Doyle, Julia E., Smartsville.
 Doyle, Maggie E., San Francisco.
 Doyle, Mary, San Francisco.
 Doyle, Mary, Searsville.
 Dozier, Agnes, Fish Rock.
 Dozier, Melville, Los Angeles.
 Dozier, Mrs. F. L., Virginia.
 Drace, Dora E., Linden.
 Drake, Carrie, Suisun.
 Dranga, Amelia A., San Diego.
 Dranga, Mina N., San Diego.
 Drennan, Annie, Emeryville.
 Drew, Mrs. M. E., Redding.
 Driscoll, Carrie R., San Francisco.
 Driscoll, Emma I., San Francisco.
 Driscoll, Kate, Benicia.
 Driscoll, Mamie, Mayfield.
 Dryfus, Ray, Woodland.
 DuBois, Mary W., San Rafael.
 DuBois, Mrs. A. E., San Francisco.
 DuBois, Mrs. C. G., Los Angeles.
 DuBois, Mrs. Irene E., San Francisco.
 Dudley, Alice J., San Francisco.
 Dudley, Annie E., San Ardo.
 Dudley, C. D., Pacheco.
 Dudley, Chester, Pacheco.
 Duffy, Alice A., San Francisco.
 Duffy, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Duffy, S. J., San Francisco.
 Duhl, Clara, Santa Barbara.
 Dunbar, S. G. S., Oakland.
 Duncan, Belle, Red Bluff.
 Duncan, Belle, Salinas.
 Duncan, Clara L., San Francisco.
 Duncan, Geo. W., Daunt.
 Duncan, Laura, Pasadena.
 Duncan, Lillie, Pasadena.
 Duncan, Nellie M., Colusa.
 Duncan, Mrs. Nellie M., Colusa.
 Duncan, Mary, Redwood City.
 Dunham, Malone, Frazier.
 Dunlap, Anna, Diamond Springs.
 Dunlap, Mrs. Elon, Diamond Springs.
 Dunlap, Nellie S., Sacramento.
 Dunn, Catherine E., San Francisco.
 Dunn, Charles, Oakland.
 Dunn, Emily A., San Francisco.
 Dunn, Frank, San Francisco.
 Dunn, Harriet E., Los Angeles.
 Dunn, James, P. H., Oakland.
 Dunn, M. A., San Francisco.
 Dunn, Mary J., San Francisco.
 Dunn, Rebecca, San Francisco.
 Dunn, Susie M., Oakland.
 Dunning, Iola, Marysville.
 Dunstone, Selinie, Wyandotte.
 Duraind, Mary R., San Francisco.
 Durham, J. M. A., Irvington.
 Durham, Mary, Irvington.
 Durkee, Annie E., Warm Springs.
 Durkin, L. F., San Francisco.
 Durner, Annie, Benicia.
 Durner, Tillie, Benicia.
 Dworzazeto, Bertha, San Francisco.
 Dwyer, A., San Francisco.
 Dwyer, James, San Francisco.
 Dwyer, Jennie, Nevada City.
 Dwyer, Mrs. M., San Francisco.
 Dye, A. J., Churchill.
 Dye, Clarkson, San Francisco.
 Dye, Wm. M., San Francisco.
 Dykeman, Mrs. S. P., San Francisco.
 Eames, Amzomett, Mt. Hamilton.
 Earle, Clara B., San Francisco.
 Earle, S. N., San Francisco.
 Earley, J. N., Oakland.
 Eastman, C. H., East Oakland.
 Eastman, Mrs. Bessie, East Oakland.
 Easton, Carrie L., Plymouth.
 Easton, Elizabeth, San Francisco.
 Easton, Mrs. R. A., Auburn.
 Ebert, Bertha, Sacramento.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

t, Clara, Gilroy.
 Nellie, Golden Gate.
 ls, Emily, San Francisco.
 son, Emma T., Santa Berline.
 , Geo. C., Berkeley.
 , Mrs. Anna F., Fresno.
 , Priscilla, Hanford.
 , W. N., San Francisco.
 gnes, Santa Cruz.
 osephine R., San Francisco.
 F, Mrs. W. D., Mariposa.
 Mrs. L. L., San Francisco.
 ene, Sacramento.
 Pauline M., Sacramento.
 mid, Carl, San Francisco.
 lrs. E. R., San Francisco.
 sther S., Oakland.
 la, Ukiah.
 elen, Chico.
 st, Dora, San Francisco.
 st, Etta, San Francisco.
 Emma F., San Francisco.
 E. P., Pomo.
 Kate, San Francisco.
 M., San Francisco.
 Mamie, Stockton.
 Mattie, Oroville.
 L., Eureka.
 M., East Oakland.
 M., San Quentin.
 rs. Leila, San Francisco.
 S., San Francisco.
 E., San Francisco.
 Mrs. Sarah G., Eureka.
 J., San Mateo.
 J. H., San Jose.
 Mrs. J. H., San Jose.
 , Charles E., Susanville.
 Annie, Watsonville.
 s, I. C., San Francisco.
 , G. D., Lotus.
 Anna L., Oakland.
 ight, Minnie, Vallejo.
 D. E., Napa City.
 Charles L., Anaheim.
 arrie B., Santa Cruz.
 le, Alice W., Furlock.
 , Mrs. D. O., Sacramento.
 n. Joseph, Oroville.
 , Adeline, San Francisco.
 , J., San Francisco.
 Clara, Monterey.
 P. A., San Francisco.
 , Annie, Crescent City.
 , Mira, Crescent City.
 ck. F. M., San Jose.
 Anna, San Francisco.
 . C., San Francisco.
 Leonidas L., Duarte.
 Mrs. Annie E., San Francisco.
 Grace, Grass Valley.
 Henry B., South Butte.
 Irene, San Francisco.

Eversole, Effa J., Vacaville.
 Ewald, Lizzie, San Francisco.
 Ewing, Jennie, Napa City.
 Ewing, N. E., San Francisco.
 Fagan, M. J., San Francisco.
 Fahey, Maggie A., Sonora.
 Fairchild, Carrie S., San Francisco.
 Fairchild, H. M., San Francisco.
 Fairchild, Marie, San Francisco.
 Fairfield, Almeda A., San Jose.
 Fairfield, Sadie F., San Francisco.
 Fairweather, Helen, San Francisco.
 Fales, Mrs. E. M., Pacific Grove.
 Fallon, Alice, San Francisco.
 Fallon, Kate, Halfmoon Bay.
 Fancompe, Marie, San Francisco.
 Farley, Cornelia, San Jose.
 Farley, Lizzie, Elmira.
 Farley, Rebecca E., San Francisco.
 Farley, Rose, Santa Clara.
 Farnam, Mrs. C. W., Oakland.
 Farrahar, Anna, Gazelle.
 Farrell, Katie, Modesto.
 Farrington, Estelle, Vallejo.
 Farrington, Mrs. S. J., Vallejo.
 Faulkner, Mrs. Susie, Hanford.
 Faulkner, William B., Midway.
 Fay, Mary, Montague.
 Fay, Mary A., San Francisco.
 Fay, Rose, San Francisco.
 Featherly, Henrietta, San Francisco.
 Featherstone, Elizabeth, Ontario.
 Feely, Frances A., Napa Junction.
 Felcker, Allie M., Santa Cruz.
 Fellows, Clara F., Oakland.
 Fennell, Annie, San Francisco.
 Fenton, Annie, San Jose.
 Fenton, Mrs. B. A., San Francisco.
 Ferguson, Lizzie, Dixon.
 Ferguson, Robina, Oakland.
 Ferguson, W. H., Galt.
 Ferrier, H. E., Watsonville.
 Ferrier, Mrs. M., Oakland.
 Ferry, Ella A., Oakland.
 Fiala, A., Alameda.
 Field, Edith, Woodbridge.
 Field, Sophia, Antioch.
 Finane, Kallie, Forest City.
 Finch, Cora R., San Jose.
 Finch, Sabra A., Florin.
 Fine, A., Oakland.
 Fine, N. A., Linden.
 Finger, Jodie, Redwood City.
 Finley, Sallie, Santa Anna.
 Finn, W. E., Sutter Creek.
 Firchhammer, J. H., Alameda.
 Fischer, Jennie, San Francisco.
 Fischer, Nunna, San Diego.
 Fish, Mrs. Francis L., Martinez.
 Fish, Mrs. Mary E., Martinez.
 Fisher, A. A., San Francisco.
 Fisher, Anna C., Oakland.
 Fisher, Charles M., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- Fisher, John, Biggs.
 Fisher, Katie B., Woodland.
 Fisher, Leila, Marysville.
 Fisher, Marion, Woodland.
 Fisher, Mattie, Woodland.
 Fisher, Mrs. K. B., Oakland.
 Fisher, P. M., Oakland.
 Fiske, N. M., San Francisco.
 Fitch, Mrs. Helen A., San Francisco.
 Fitts, A. B., Pacific Grove.
 Fitzgerald, J. A., Oakland.
 Fitzgerald, Johanna T., Grass Valley.
 Fitzgerald, Richard J., Grass Valley.
 Fitzmaurice, Dora, San Benito.
 Fitzmaurice, Gracie, San Francisco.
 Fitzpatrick, Frank, San Francisco.
 Fitzpatrick, J. D., San Francisco.
 Fitzpatrick, Mary, Alameda.
 FitzSimmons, K. F., San Francisco.
 FitzSimmons, R. A., San Francisco.
 Flach, Conrad, San Francisco.
 Flaherty, Mrs. Belle, San Francisco.
 Flaridon, Mary C., Dutch Flat.
 Fleury, Celine, San Francisco.
 Flint, A. T., San Francisco.
 Flint, Joseph N., San Francisco.
 Flint, Mrs. Thomas, San Juan.
 Floden, Carl A., Hanford.
 Floyd, S., San Andreas.
 Flynn, Emma, San Francisco.
 Flynn, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Flynn, Mrs. K. M., San Francisco.
 Flynn, Thos., San Francisco.
 Fogg, E. W., Oroville.
 Fogg, Mrs. E. W., Oroville.
 Fogarty, Nora, San Francisco.
 Foley, Mary, Azusa.
 Folsom, Mrs. G. A., San Francisco.
 Folsom, Lovia A., San Francisco.
 Foot, Sarah, Groveland.
 Footman, H. E., San Francisco.
 Forbes, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Forbes, Jennie A., San Francisco.
 Ford, Frank, Butte City.
 Ford, H. W., Ione.
 Ford, Jas. A., Cambria.
 Ford, Mrs. Ann L., Paskenta.
 Ford, Sophie, Cambria.
 Foree, D. H., Vacaville.
 Foree, T., Vacaville.
 Forester, A. M., San Francisco.
 Fortier, Rosa A., San Francisco.
 Forward, Ella, Butte Meadows.
 Foshay, James A., Monrovia.
 Foss, Carrie F., Stockton.
 Foster, A. S., Viro.
 Foster, Granville F., Grass Valley.
 Foster, Ida V., Sacramento.
 Foster, M. R., Fresno.
 Foster, Mrs. Emily, San Francisco.
 Fountain, Maggie, St. Helena.
 Fowler, C. E., Lincoln.
 Fowler, C. P., San Luis.
 Fowler, D. T., Oakland.
 Fowler, Elizabeth N., Pomona.
 Fowler, Laura T., San Francisco.
 Fowler, Mrs. Bell J., Lincoln.
 Fowler, Mrs. Lizzie F., Oakland.
 Fowler, Mrs. S. E., Lincoln.
 Fox, Frederica, San Francisco.
 Fox, Lizzie, Weaverville.
 Fox, R. D., San Jose.
 Fox, Sarah, San Diego.
 Foye, Hattie, San Francisco.
 Frank, Amelia Bertha, West End.
 Frank, Esther, Livermore.
 Frank, Henry, Berkeley.
 Frank, Samuel, West End.
 Franklin, F. M., San Francisco.
 Franklin, R. Alice, Irvington.
 Franklyn, Nellie, Searsville.
 Frary, Maud, San Francisco.
 Fraser, R. W., Calestoga.
 Frazier, Annie, Watsonville.
 Freeman, Bertha, Grass Valley.
 Freeman, Mrs. C. W., West Oakland.
 Freeman, Mary E., Woodland.
 Freeman, Mrs. S. P., Red Bluff.
 Freeman, W. N., Los Angeles.
 French, Bessie, San Francisco.
 French, Mrs. C. F., Santa Rosa.
 French, Nellie K., Petaluma.
 French, Sarah T., Berkeley.
 Frick, Luther M., Vacaville.
 Frick, Mrs. Margaret J., Los Angeles.
 Friesner, W. M., Los Angeles.
 Frontin, Elizabeth A., San Francisco.
 Frontin, Mary A., San Francisco.
 Froser, Mrs. N. M., San Francisco.
 Frost, Charles B., Garberville.
 Frost, Edith M., Garberville.
 Frost, J. H., Grainland.
 Fry, William H., Elmira.
 Fuchs, August, Livermore.
 Fuller, A. L., Oakland.
 Fuller, Mrs. A. L., Livermore.
 Fuller, Kate M., San Francisco.
 Fuller, Mary, Red Bluff.
 Fuller, Mrs. Ellen N., San Francisco.
 Fulton, A. M., San Francisco.
 Fulton, Ida A., St. Helena.
 Fund, A. P., San Francisco.
 Furgeson, Bell, Anderson.
 Furlong, Robt., San Rafael.
 Fuson, Mrs. Mary, Stockton.
 Futhey, Annette, Auburn.
 Futhey, Annie, Auburn.
 Gabler, Lillia, Madison.
 Gaddis, Bertha, Black's Station.
 Gaddis, Edward E., San Francisco.
 Gaddis, Mary, Black's Station.
 Gadsby, Bertha M., San Francisco.
 Gadsby, Fannie M., San Francisco.
 Gaines, Nellie, San Francisco.
 Gaines, Nellie C., San Francisco.
 Galbraith, Alma, Oakland.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

, W. H., Santa Cruz.
 V., Red Bluff.
 Minnie I., Mission San Jose.
 , Annie M., San Francisco.
 , Cora, San Francisco.
 , Ettie M., St. Andreas.
 , Eunice, San Andreas.
 , G., San Francisco.
 , Maggie, San Francisco.
 , Mary S., Sheep Ranch.
 , Nellie R., San Francisco.
 , Frances, San Jose.
 , Susie, San Jose.
 Martha S., San Francisco.
 John A., School House Station.
 John, San Mateo.
 J. J., San Francisco.
 May E., San Francisco.
 Sarah B., San Francisco.
 Mrs. M. F., San Francisco.
 Teresa L., Amados City.
 Carrie, Ukiah.
 Peter, Glennville.
 J. A., San Pablo.
 A., Oakland.
 S. P. A., Oakland.
 Abbie A., San Francisco.
 Etha F., Oakland.
 . P., Oakland.
 . H., Hollister.
 Emma F., San Francisco.
 . Emma, Benicia.
 Mary E., Ferndale.
 Albert G., Chico.
 Gazena, Point Tiburon.
 Elizabeth E., West Oakland.
 Thomas D., San Francisco.
 S. E., Red Bluff.
 , Arthur D., Forest City.
 , Mrs. A. D., Forest City.
 , Mrs. Jas. E., Grass Valley.
 A., Tomales.
 S. Sophia B., Oakland.
 A. E., San Francisco.
 la, Williams.
 ert V., Kelseyville.
 J., Walnut Creek.
 G., San Francisco.
 lecie, Virginia.
 Clara J., Grass Valley.
 Harriet I., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. J. E., San Francisco.
 er, Amanda E., Stockton.
 Lilly E., Napa.
 Bessie E., Alameda.
 S. Ellen, Oakland.
 . J., Los Angeles.
 ettie, San Francisco.
 I. A., San Francisco.
 I. M., San Francisco.
 Blanche, Visalia.
 W., San Francisco.
 Mary, Rio Vista.

Gilbert, Anna S., Mills College.
 Gilbert, Annie W., San Francisco.
 Gilbert, Kate, Oakland.
 Gilbert, T. H., Yreka.
 Gilchrist, Cecilia, San Francisco.
 Gilcrest, George, Halfmoon Bay.
 Gilfillan, Alice H., Salinas.
 Gilfillan, Lizzie, Salinas.
 Gill, John J., San Leandro.
 Gill, Kate D., San Francisco.
 Gillespie, Jennie H., San Francisco.
 Gillespie, Luella, Suisun.
 Gillespie, Maggie G., San Jose.
 Gillespie, Mrs. A. L., Oakland.
 Gillis, Anna, Yreka.
 Gillis, H. B., Yreka.
 Gillis, Inie M., Sacramento.
 Gilmartin, Mrs. J. F., San Diego.
 Gilmore, Edith M., San Francisco.
 Gilmore, Forest A., San Francisco.
 Gilmour, Rachel S., Eureka.
 Gilmoure, Nellie, Selma.
 Gilpin, L. T., Oakland.
 Ginn, F. B., Oakland.
 Ginn, Frankie V., Red Bluff.
 Ginner, Ruth Burritt, Pasadena.
 Girdner, Annie, Challenge Mill.
 Girdner, G. Annie, Sutter City.
 Given, Horace R., Weaverville.
 Givens, Mollie, Soquel.
 Glass, Louis, San Francisco.
 Gleason, Belle, San Leandro.
 Gleason, Charlotte J., San Leandro.
 Gleason, Mrs. Orie B., Lemoore.
 Gleeson, John B., Chico.
 Glendenning, Maggie E., Woodland.
 Glennan, Isabelle T., San Francisco.
 Glennan, Mrs. John, Redwood City.
 Glidden, Cora A., San Francisco.
 Glidden, Mary A., San Francisco.
 Glover, A. W., Magalia.
 Gober, L., Antioch.
 Goggin, E., San Francisco.
 Goin, T. J., Woodland.
 Goldman, Julia E., San Francisco.
 Goldsmith, Ada, San Francisco.
 Goldsmith, Bertha, San Francisco.
 Goldsmith, Esther, San Francisco.
 Goldsmith, Rose, San Francisco.
 Goldstein, Franz M., San Francisco.
 Goldthwaith, A., Anaheim.
 Gompertz, Helen M., Berkeley.
 Gooch, Geo. W., Los Angeles.
 Good, Ray, Middletown.
 Goodall, Geo. B., Berkeley.
 Goodell, George, Stockton.
 Goodhue, Carrie, Sacramento.
 Goodnow, Nellie M., Big Oak Flat.
 Goodrich, Edgar C., Gilroy.
 Goodspeed, S. L., San Francisco.
 Goodyear, Grace, Benicia.
 Gordon, Geo. A., Jackson.
 Gordon, Georgia A., Monterey.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

Gordon, Mary Q., Monterey.
 Gordon, Mrs. E. A., San Jose.
 Gorman, Jane B., San Francisco.
 Gosbey, Perley F., Pacific Grove.
 Gosselin, M. B., Eureka.
 Gould, Jennie C., Los Angeles.
 Goulding, C. K., Mills Seminary.
 Gower, Hattie F., Los Angeles.
 Gower, Mary L., Los Angeles.
 Gracier, Addie, San Francisco.
 Grady, Theodore, San Francisco.
 Graeber, Mattie, San Jose.
 Graham, A., San Francisco.
 Graham, Lizzie M., San Francisco.
 Graham, Mollie V., Sacramento.
 Grandfield, Lizzie, Cloverdale.
 Grandjean, E., Oakland.
 Grandjean, N., Oakland.
 Graney, Margaret M., Santa Barbara.
 Granger, W. C., Healdsburg.
 Granger, Mrs. W. C., Healdsburg.
 Grant, Ellen G., San Francisco.
 Grant, Emily W., Woodland.
 Grant, Florence, Napa City.
 Grant, Helen A., San Francisco.
 Grant, Lucy M., Los Angeles.
 Grant, Mrs. S. E., Woodland.
 Graves, O. E., Red Bluff.
 Graves, Mrs. O. E., Red Bluff.
 Graves, Sadie H., Red Bluff.
 Graves, Thomas O., San Miguel.
 Gray, Alice C., Los Angeles.
 Gray, E. H., Oakland.
 Gray, Ida, Marysville.
 Gray, Lucy, Nevada City.
 Gray, Mrs. John C., Oroville.
 Gray, Mrs. Minnie A., East Oakland.
 Gray, Mrs. M. M., Oakland.
 Gray, T. B., Nevada City.
 Gray, Walter, San Jose.
 Gray, W. C., Nevada City.
 Gray, William, San Diego.
 Green, Annie E., Yuba City.
 Green, Eva, Millbrae.
 Green, Floride, San Francisco.
 Green, Mrs. A. H., San Francisco.
 Greenan, Mrs. F., San Francisco.
 Greene, Abbie L., El Paso de Robles.
 Greene, Chas. S., San Francisco.
 Greenhood, Fannie, San Francisco.
 Greenlaw, Flora M., Sacramento.
 Greenman, Mrs. Ella E., East Oakland.
 Greenman, Mrs. Minnie J., Orange.
 Greer, Alice C., San Francisco.
 Greer, Jane E., San Francisco.
 Greer, Lizzie B., Stillwater.
 Gregg, A. C., San Francisco.
 Gregory, Ella L., Livermore.
 Gretter, Geo. W., Salinas City.
 Griffin, Cora, San Francisco.
 Griffin, Helen T., Chico.
 Griffin, May, Martinez.
 Griffin, Mattie E., Pacific Grove.

Griffin, Mrs. L. R., Oakland.
 Griffin, P. H., Angel Camp.
 Griffin, Virginia, Los Angeles.
 Griffith, E., Pasadena.
 Griffith, Mrs. Hester, Pasadena.
 Griffith, Mrs. Aurelia, San Francisco.
 Grimes, Ida W., San Ardo.
 Grimes, Lily, Fillmore.
 Grimm, Adele S., San Francisco.
 Griswold, Harriet B., San Francisco.
 Gross, Mary E., Sutter Creek.
 Grote, Maggie E., San Francisco.
 Grote, Sophie A., San Francisco.
 Groth, Birtie, Sacramento.
 Grove, Mrs. J. L., San Francisco.
 Grove, Louise, Oakland.
 Grove, Minnie, Georgetown.
 Grover, John, Oregon House.
 Groves, Gertrude, Navarro.
 Grummet, Isabell, Oroville.
 Grundies, Martha, San Francisco.
 Grunig, L. H., Grafton.
 Grunsky, Clotilde, Stockton.
 Guerne, Marie, Santa Rosa.
 Gulich, Chas. F., Bangor.
 Gulling, Mrs. Geo., Nicolaus.
 Guppy, Estelle L., Mills Seminary.
 Gyte, Esther A., Napa City.
 Hackett, John J., Markham.
 Hackett, Mrs. E. S., San Francisco.
 Hadley, James L., Dow's Prairie.
 Hagan, W. R., Los Angeles.
 Hagarty, A. M., San Francisco.
 Hagadorn, Anna C., San Francisco.
 Hagerman, Archie C., Corralitos.
 Hahmann, Lottie C., Santa Rosa.
 Haile, Lucy W., Vacaville.
 Hait, S., San Francisco.
 Hale, Wm. E., Oakland.
 Haley, C. S., San Francisco.
 Haley, Mrs. E. F. W., Oakland.
 Haley, W. W., San Francisco.
 Hall, Fannie, Santa Anna.
 Hall, F. M., Cambria.
 Hall, Geo. W., Halfmoon Bay.
 Hall, Ida S., Clayton.
 Hall, Isaac R., San Francisco.
 Hall, Mrs. I. R., San Francisco.
 Hall, Lizzie, Redwood City.
 Hall, L. M., San Jose.
 Hall, Mary J., San Francisco.
 Hall, M. Ella, Suisun.
 Hall, W. S., Gilroy.
 Hall, Mrs. W. S., Gilroy.
 Halstead, J. L., San Francisco.
 Ham, Chas. H., San Francisco.
 Haman, Anpie C., San Francisco.
 Hamill, Mrs. A. H., San Francisco.
 Hamilton, Agnes, Oakland.
 Hamilton, Arthur L., Pasadena.
 Hamilton, Enna, King City.
 Hamilton, James T., San Francisco.
 Hamilton, Mrs. C. L., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- n, Mrs. M. J., Oakland.
 n, Mrs. S. E., Ukiah.
 n, Nettie, Los Angeles.
 n, O. B., Salinas.
 n, Robert J., Dixon.
 n, Sam A., Crescent City.
 E. W., St. Helena.
 Mrs. J. L., St. Helena.
 Sarah D., San Francisco.
 Halena, San Francisco.
 Mrs. M. A., San Francisco.
 r, Mrs. Cordelia, Oakland.
 r, Ina I., Oakland.
 nd, Carrie, Petaluma.
 nd, Emily L., San Francisco.
 nd, Etta E., San Francisco.
 nd, Hulda A., San Jose.
 n, Clay, Bridgeport.
 te, Mrs. Emma A., Los Angeles.
 S. C., San Jose.
 l, Eveline V., South San Francisco.
 Mary, Redwood City.
 Amelia I., South San Francisco.
 Louise R., San Francisco.
 D. W., Los Angeles.
 Chas. R., San Francisco.
 John H., San Francisco.
 Mary, Hueneme.
 L. B., West Oakland.
 M. A., San Jose.
 Mary M., Lower Lake.
 Mrs. May, San Francisco.
 l, Mrs. Emma, Marysville.
 h, Mary C., Oakland.
 , Anna, Forestville.
 Rosalie, San Francisco.
 erg, Rose, Riverside.
 James L., Hollister.
 , Charles W., Santa Rosa.
 rene, Oakland.
 Jora E., Downieville.
 te M., San Francisco.
 , J. H., San Francisco.
 s, Mary A., Stockton.
 Annie, San Francisco.
 , Carrie M., Hollister.
 . S., Santa Cruz.
 Edward T., Pleasanton.
 Albert, Starkey.
 L., Oakland.
 i, Josie, San Francisco.
 i, J. T., San Francisco.
 i, L. B., San Francisco.
 i, Mary A., San Francisco.
 on, Kate A., San Francisco.
 on, Mrs. Etta K., Upper Lake.
 James A., Lower Lake.
 illie, Pleasanton.
 A. C., San Francisco.
 , Ella C., Santa Barbara.
 , Minnie D., Hollister.
 Frances V., Los Angeles.
 has. R., Stockton.
 Hart, Christine, San Francisco.
 Hart, Edward, Clements.
 Hart, Florence E., San Jose.
 Hart, Helen M., Alameda.
 Hart, Lydia, San Francisco.
 Hart, Pauline, San Francisco.
 Hart, Powell, Mormon Island.
 Hartley, G. P., Redwood City.
 Hartley, Mrs. J. E., Redwood City.
 Hartley, Reuben H., Pasadena.
 Hartmayer, Mrs. C. A., San Francisco.
 Hartwell, J. B., San Francisco.
 Harvey, Sue H., Alvarado.
 Harvey, Tina L., San Francisco.
 Harwood, Laura, Douglas Flat.
 Haskell, H. M., Berkeley.
 Haskett, Mrs. M., Ukiah.
 Hassen, Kate M., San Francisco.
 Hassler, Leonora, Los Angeles.
 Haswell, M., San Francisco.
 Haswell, Nellie C., San Francisco.
 Hatch, J. N., Vacaville.
 Hatch, Lida E., Salinas City.
 Hatch, Luella A., Tulare City.
 Hathaway, Edmund, San Lorenzo.
 Hatman, Jossie, San Francisco.
 Hauert, William H., Hanford.
 Haussler, Maggie, San Francisco.
 Haven, Thos. E., Oakland.
 Hawes, F. T., San Francisco.
 Hawes, Sara E., San Francisco.
 Hawkins, B. A., Fresno.
 Hawkins, Mrs. Alice, San Francisco.
 Hawkins, Mrs. M. E., Oakland.
 Hawley, Mrs. A. C., Saticoy.
 Hawley, E. W., San Francisco.
 Hawley, M. E., San Francisco.
 Hawxhurst, Josie, Antioch.
 Hawxhurst, Mrs. Eliza, San Francisco.
 Hawxhurst, Theo., Lafayette.
 Hayburn, Marguerite, San Francisco.
 Haydock, Richard B., Hueneme.
 Haydon, S. L., San Francisco.
 Hayes, Mrs. M. A., Santa Barbara.
 Hayman, John E., Colusa.
 Haynes, Daniel P., Oakland.
 Hazleton, Mrs. R. H., San Francisco.
 Heald, E. P., San Francisco.
 Heald, Ettie E., Guerneville.
 Heald, Sallie M., San Francisco.
 Healy, C. G., Newark.
 Healy, Grace R., Mills Seminary.
 Healy, Mary E., San Jose.
 Heartley, Mrs. Libbie, Pasadena.
 Heath, Roberta E. L., San Francisco.
 Heath, Virginia D., San Francisco.
 Heaton, Jessie A., Orland.
 Heaton, M. C., Oakland.
 Hearey, Kate, Red Bluff.
 Hector, Robert, Newcastle.
 Hedden, May, San Francisco.
 Hefron, Helene, San Francisco.
 Heineberg, Laura, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

Heitman, Mrs. Emma, Colusa.
 Helmke, Mrs. Anna, Santa Cruz.
 Helms, Dora, San Lorenzo.
 Henderson, Janet M., Los Angeles.
 Henderson, Margaret, Newark.
 Henderson, Mary A., Los Angeles.
 Henderson, M. J., San Francisco.
 Hendrick, E. W., San Diego.
 Heney, Libbie S., San Francisco.
 Henicke, Emma, San Francisco.
 Henion, Lillian, La Henda.
 Hennessey, J. E., Oroville.
 Hennessey, J. S., Grass Valley.
 Henning, May, San Buenaventura.
 Hennings, Annie C., Oakland.
 Henrich, Karl, Orland.
 Henry, Allen, Chico.
 Henry, C. M., Alamo.
 Henry, Emma, Los Angeles.
 Henry, Hattie, Hollister.
 Henry, K. M., Alamo.
 Henslee, S., Orland.
 Hensley, Abram H., Madera.
 Herbert, Thomas L., Penryn.
 Herbst, A., San Francisco.
 Herd, Gertrude, Oakland.
 Hering, George, Visalia.
 Herman, Ida B., Sutter Creek.
 Hermann, Etta E., San Jose.
 Herndon, Annie C., San Francisco.
 Herndon, Mrs. Ida, Sacramento.
 Herndon, Stella M., San Jose.
 Herron, I. G., Napa City.
 Herrick, Annie M., Oakland.
 Herrin, Lizzie B., Oroville.
 Hersh, A. C., San Jose.
 Hershey, D. N., Blacks.
 Hersum, Henrietta, Sacramento.
 Hertz, Regina, San Francisco.
 Hess, Laura E., Sacramento.
 Hession, K., San Francisco.
 Hession, M. C., San Francisco.
 Hetty, Lucy B., Santa Cruz.
 Hertick, F. D., San Francisco.
 Heywood, Charles, San Francisco.
 Hickey, K. M., San Francisco.
 Hickley, H. A., Jackson.
 Hickman, J. B., Castroville.
 Hicks, T. J., Orland.
 Hiester, Ida M., San Francisco.
 Higgins, A. R., Little River.
 Higgins, B. F., Little River.
 Higgins, Kate, Cordelia.
 Hibland, Mrs. J. E., San Francisco.
 Hilborn, Mrs. S. G., East Oakland.
 Hilke, Lena T., Stockton.
 Hill, Annie A., San Francisco.
 Hill, Carrie, Pasadena.
 Hill, Chas. E., Adin.
 Hill, Chas. W., San Jose.
 Hill, E. K., Cornwall.
 Hill, Ella, Oakland.
 Hill, Eugene K., Nevada City.

Hill, Josie, San Francisco.
 Hill, Minnie A., San Francisco.
 Hilliman, J. C., San Francisco.
 Hilton, E. H., Oakland.
 Hilton, Mary L., Decota.
 Hinds, Annie, San Francisco.
 Hines, G. D., Irvington.
 Hinkson, Lucy, Sacramento.
 Hintze, H., Modesto.
 Hintze, Mrs. M. B., Modesto.
 Hitchens, Lizzie, San Francisco.
 Hitchcock, E. K., Pacheco.
 Hitchcock, Geo. N., San Diego.
 Hitchcock, Helen M., San Francisco.
 Hite, Fanny M., Santa Clara.
 Hoag, Jared C., San Francisco.
 Hobbs, Ethel, Gilroy.
 Hobbs, Genie, Los Angeles.
 Hobbs, Mrs. Julia, Lincoln.
 Hobe, George John, San Francisco.
 Hobe, Mrs. Geo., San Francisco.
 Hobe, Sophia A., San Francisco.
 Hockheimer, Julia, San Francisco.
 Hodgdon, S. J., Oakland.
 Hodge, Annie L., San Diego.
 Hodges, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 Hodgkin, Louisa O., San Francisco.
 Hodgkinson, Frances, San Francisco.
 Hodgkinson, K., San Francisco.
 Hodson, Casper W., Pasadena.
 Hoen, Anna, San Francisco.
 Hoffman, Mrs. Mary L., San Francisco.
 Hogan, Eugene S., Lodi.
 Hogan, Miss M. A., San Francisco.
 Hoitt, Ira D., Sacramento.
 Hoitt, Julia, Sacramento.
 Holbrook, E. M., Walnut Creek.
 Holcombe, E. A., San Francisco.
 Holder, Abbie M., Santa Barbara.
 Holland, Bertha, Visalia.
 Hollingsworth, L. M., Greenwich.
 Hollopeter, E. E., Gridley.
 Holmes, Ahira, San Jose.
 Holmes, Alice E., Riverside.
 Holmes, Annie S., Riverside.
 Holmes, E. W., Riverside.
 Holmes, H. T., San Francisco.
 Holmes, Jno. M., Fresno.
 Holmes, May, San Jose.
 Holmes, M. S., Berkeley.
 Holmes, R. L., San Jose.
 Holmes, Sadie B., Berkeley.
 Holmes, Susan, Oakland.
 Hood, Blanche, Fish Rock.
 Hoogs, Mrs. May A., Oakland.
 Hook, Hattie C., Nevada City.
 Hook, Mary E., Nevada City.
 Hooper, J. F., New Almaden Hill.
 Hooper, T. R., Kernville.
 Hopkins, L. T., San Francisco.
 Hopkins, Minnie W., Napa City.
 Hopley, Nettie, Sacramento.
 Hoppe, Clare, Sacramento.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

, Linna, Sacramento.
 , May E., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. L., East Oakland.
 , Mrs. N. H., Oakland.
 Laura J., San Francisco.
 by, Annie L., Lampoc.
 n, Amanda C., West Oakland.
 n. Geo. W., Oakland.
 n, Marie, San Francisco.
 n, Lutie, Sacramento.
 n, Sarah U., Oakland.
 ter, Etta N., East Oakland.
 ng, C. Blanche, Dunnigan.
 ing, Lillian B., Santa Rosa.
 rsall, G. J., Nevada City.
 ins, Edward A., Sycamore.
 ins, Gertrude, Colusa.
 , Mrs. Eva L., Santa Cruz.
 , Mrs. S. E., San Francisco.
 ton, Mrs. Ella, Bakersfield.
 ton, Ella L., Bakersfield.
 ton, Joseph R., Chico.
 ton, W. A., Stockton.
 , Frances M., Salinas.
 on, Jennie, San Francisco.
 on, J. K., Franklin.
 on, M. A., San Francisco.
 d, B. F., Sacramento.
 d, Frank B., Alila.
 d, F. Jennie, San Jose.
 d, Harold, San Francisco.
 d, Kate F., Walnut Creek.
 d, Lillian A., Santa Cruz.
 d, Louisa B., San Francisco.
 d, Marguerite, Fillmore.
 d, Mrs. Berry, Modesto.
 d, W. B., Modesto.
 Agnes E., Nordhoff.
 E. P., Sacramento.
 M. K., Ophir.
 Stella H., San Francisco.
 l, Annie B., Oakland.
 l, Jessie E., San Francisco.
 l, Minnie U., San Diego.
 on, George H., Berkeley.
 on, Mrs. George H., Berkeley.
 Mrs. M. J., Fresno City.
 Naomi E., San Francisco.
 Mrs. M. L., Oakland.
 W. W., Diamond Springs.
 , Blanche, Clay Station.
 , A. E., San Francisco.
 n, Myrtie C., San Jose.
 Alvina, San Francisco.
 Alma F., Pasadena.
 ter, Anthony, Westland.
 ter, P. O., Westland.
 e, Addie L., Sacramento.
 e, Emma A., Sacramento.
 e, George, Red Bluff.
 e, J. C., Santa City.
 e, Robert E., Pasadena.
 n, Frazz, Westland.

Hulbert, Julia L., Hanford.
 Hull, Clinton T., Berkeley.
 Hull, Mary Frank, Belmont.
 Humphrey, Alice, San Jose.
 Humaker, Geo. W., Tulare City.
 Humphries, Ida G., San Jose.
 Humphrey, Jennie A., Oakland.
 Humphrey, Mary, Santa Cruz.
 Humphreys, M. A., Brentwood.
 Hunt, Abbie L., San Francisco.
 Hunt, Agnes C., San Diego.
 Hunt, B. E., Napa City.
 Hunt, C. L., San Francisco.
 Hunt, Helen E., East Los Angeles.
 Hunt, Ida L., Milton.
 Hunt, Mrs. M. C., Napa City.
 Huntington, Lula, Eureka.
 Huntley, A. M., San Francisco.
 Huntley, Mrs. D. B., Oakland.
 Huntting, Mrs. Mary T., San Francisco.
 Huper, F. W., Fort Jones.
 Hurley, Jennie M. A., San Francisco.
 Hurley, M. E., San Francisco.
 Huse, Alice R., Santa Barbara.
 Huskey, F. G., Napa City.
 Hussey, Walter R., Petaluma.
 Huston, M. A., Los Angeles.
 Hutchinson, E. J., Stockton.
 Hyatt, Frank H., San Diego.
 Hyde, Mrs. E. W., San Francisco.
 Hyde, Mrs. W. J., Sacramento.
 Ingall, Nellie, Oakdale.
 Ingemundsen, Maule, Napa City.
 Ingham, H. C., Irvington.
 Ingram, Mrs. V. O., San Francisco.
 Inskip, Lorenzo D., Oakland.
 Irons, Mrs. H. L., Elmira.
 Irons, H. L., Elmira.
 Irvine, R., Oakland.
 Irvine, Susan, Santa Rita.
 Itwell, A. J., San Francisco.
 Iven, Mrs. Cassie, St. Helena.
 Iven, Mrs. Emily T., Alameda.
 Jackman, Samuel H., Parklin.
 Jackman, Mrs. H. H., Parklin.
 Jackman, Anna, Napa City.
 Jackman, A. Wendell, Berkeley.
 Jackman, Etta, Alameda.
 Jackman, Mary, East Oakland.
 Jackman, C., San Francisco.
 Jackman, Nellie A., San Francisco.
 Jackman, Katherine, San Francisco.
 Jackman, H. V., San Francisco.
 Jackman, V. Anna, Antiochville.
 Jackman, Araminta, Elmina.
 Jackman, Emma, Elmina.
 Jackman, Minnie K., Elmina.
 Jackman, Aggie, Red Bluff.
 Jackman, Kathia, Elmina.
 Jackman, Kathia, Elmina.
 Jackman, V. W., Elmina.
 Jackman, Hattie, Elmina.
 Jackman, Mary K., Santa City.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- Janson, Sine, San Diego.
 Jasper, W. H., Santa Anna.
 Jenkins, A. L., San Francisco.
 Jenkins, C. W., San Francisco.
 Jenkins, Mrs. Rose H., San Francisco.
 Jenkins, Mrs. S. B., San Francisco.
 Jenne, Mary E., Highland Springs.
 Jennings, Effie, Red Bluff.
 Jensen, Annie, Rio Vista.
 Jensen, Emma, Rio Vista.
 Jensen, J. C., Haywards.
 Jensen, Susannah, Letcher.
 Jepson, Esther, Napa.
 Jepson, May E., Vacaville.
 Jewell, L., Calistoga.
 Jewell, Ruby A., San Francisco.
 Jewell, A. F., Hanford.
 Jewell, Annie L., San Francisco.
 Jewell, Henry E., Vacaville.
 Johnson, Annie, Martinez.
 Johnson, A. M., San Francisco.
 Johnson, Annie E., San Mateo.
 Johnson, Annie M., Oakland.
 Johnson, Chas. F., Florin.
 Johnson, Eliza, Oakland.
 Johnson, Joseph W., Sacramento.
 Johnson, Kate E., Winters.
 Johnson, Marie J., San Francisco.
 Johnson, Mrs. J. M., San Francisco.
 Johnson, Mrs. Sumner, San Francisco.
 Johnston, Mrs. Anna Mills, Visalia.
 Johnston, Bertha, Orange.
 Johnston, Clara M., San Francisco.
 Johnston, Fannie E., Red Bluff.
 Johnston, Jennie, San Francisco.
 Johnston, Jessie L., Halfmoon Bay.
 Johnston, Laura R., Visalia.
 Johnston, Minda M., Salinas.
 Johnston, Petra, Halfmoon Bay.
 Johnston, Robert E., Visalia.
 Johnston, R. R., Oakland.
 Jones, A. F., Oroville.
 Jones, Mrs. C. C., San Francisco.
 Jones, David G., Berkeley.
 Jones, Frances H., Colusa.
 Jones, Josie F., Lewis.
 Jones, Kate D., Vallejo.
 Jones, Laura G., San Jose.
 Jones, Lillia R., National City.
 Jones, Mr., Alhambra.
 Jones, Mary L., Modesto.
 Jones, Mrs. C. E., San Francisco.
 Jones, Mrs. Frances, Georgetown.
 Jones, Mrs. Margaret, San Francisco.
 Jones, Mrs. Hannah, Colusa.
 Jones, Mrs. Maud Hartley, San Francisco.
 Jones, Sarah M., Sacramento.
 Jones, S. J., San Francisco.
 Jones, Mrs. T. J., National City.
 Jones, Wm. Carey, Berkeley.
 Joran, Louis G., San Francisco.
 Joran, Mrs. Clara N., San Francisco.
 Joslin, Alice, Antioch.
 Joseph, Mrs. S. W., San Francisco.
 Joy, Edith M., Pomona.
 Joy, Eleanor M., Healdsburg.
 Joy, W. V., Salinas City.
 Judson, Anita A., San Francisco.
 Juergens, Annie, Red Bluff.
 Jules, Anna, Sacramento.
 Julien, L. M., Yreka.
 Kain, Dr., San Francisco.
 Kain, Mrs. E. H., San Francisco.
 Kaiser, Armeda, Yreka.
 Kalmuk, Lillie A., San Francisco.
 Kanary, B., San Francisco.
 Kane, Emma G., Armador City.
 Kane, George, Nord.
 Kane, Mary L., Drytown.
 Kane, P. H., Jackson.
 Kaplen, M. E., San Francisco.
 Karatar, Angele C., San Francisco.
 Karatar, Mathilde, San Francisco.
 Karr, Anna Bell, Marysville.
 Karsky, S., San Francisco.
 Keady, Maggie T., San Francisco.
 Kean, Katie E., San Francisco.
 Keating, H., Stockton.
 Keating, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Keaton, Lizzie, San Jose.
 Keaton, Nellie, San Jose.
 Keefe, Anna, San Jose.
 Keefer, A. F., Oakland.
 Keeney, Mrs. E. P., San Francisco.
 Keep, Hattie R., San Francisco.
 Keep, Josiah, Mills Seminary.
 Keiser, Mrs. Mary, San Francisco.
 Keith, Fannie, Willows.
 Keith, J. C., College City.
 Keith, Mrs. William, Berkeley.
 Keleher, Maggie M., Grass Valley.
 Kellewer, Alfred J., San Francisco.
 Kelley, A. M., San Jose.
 Kelley, Rosa M., San Francisco.
 Kellogg, A. E., San Francisco.
 Kellogg, Mrs. A. E., San Francisco.
 Kelly, Anna M., San Francisco.
 Kelly, Elizabeth E., San Francisco.
 Kelly, Ella L., Marysville.
 Kelly, Gussie, San Francisco.
 Kelly, Honnie H., Sacramento.
 Kelly, Mrs. Lettie, San Francisco.
 Kelly, Lillian, Sacramento.
 Kelly, Mary, Martinez.
 Kelly, Mamie, San Jose.
 Kelsey, Laura D., Oakland.
 Kelsey, Lucina H., San Jose.
 Kelsey, Mrs. S. G., Santa Barbara.
 Kelsey, Sarah A., San Buenaventura.
 Kelton, Mrs. M. A., Ukiah.
 Kelton, Pearl, Napa.
 Kendall, Flora C., Oakland.
 Kennedy, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Kennedy, Gano, Oakland.
 Kennedy, James G., San Francisco.
 Kennedy, John, Yreka.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

y, J. C., Vacaville.
 y, Mary A., San Francisco.
 y, May E., San Francisco.
 y, Mrs. J. C., Vacaville.
 y, Thos. E., San Francisco.
 y, W., San Francisco.
 , Delia A., San Francisco.
 M. F., Sonora.
 lara A., Jackson.
 , F., Fresno City.
 James N., Santa Anna.
 . K., Colusa.
 lex., San Bernardino.
 . W., Jackson.
 le, Wm., San Francisco.
 w. Nellie, San Francisco.
 , Ida M., San Francisco.
 , Jennie E., San Francisco.
 Jos. M., Alvarado.
 Minnie, Sacramento.
 , Mrs. Jennie C., Sacramento.
 l, F. H., Elmira Station.
 l, Gracey C., Livermore.
 l, H. R., Forbstown.
 l, Lillie M., San Francisco.
 l, Mary S., Oakland.
 l, Minnie F., Oakland.
 l, Mrs. Mary W., San Francisco.
 k, Thos. G., Sacramento.
 ertie, Biggs.
 orinne, San Bernardino.
 . A. J., Dixon,
 essie I., San Francisco.
 ercy S., Candelaria.
 in, Mrs. Myra V., Oakland.
 ury, Annie, Igo.
 ury, Mrs. H. S., San Jose.
 ury, Lottie A., Igo.
 a, Letitia, San Francisco.
 H. C., San Francisco.
 . Abbott, Santa Monica.
 . Lillie M., San Francisco.
 , Mary F., San Diego.
 d, Cordelia, San Francisco.
 od, W. A., Martinez.
 aura, Sacramento.
 Mrs. T. S., Jackson.
 f. L., Vallejo.
 . Marion, Oakland.
 ger, Geo. R., San Jose.
 rge, Emma, Sacramento.
 ., San Francisco.
 ter, W. H., Woodbridge.
 ean, San Francisco.
 . Amelia C., Sacramento.
 Martha M., Los Angeles.
 , Kate, Red Bluff.
 . Cameron, San Francisco.
 Georgietta, Bird's Landing.
 on, E., San Francisco.
 on, E. L., Oakland.
 on, Josephine, Irakonville.
 on, Kittie C., San Francisco.

Knowlton, Lydia H., Oakland.
 Knox, W. T., Grafton.
 Kobicke, Sophia, San Francisco.
 Koch, Antone, Sacramento.
 Koenig, Edward J., East Oakland.
 Koenig, Theo. L., San Jose.
 Kollmyer, Kate, San Francisco.
 Kooser, M. F., Los Angeles.
 Kopp, Lily, Sutter Creek.
 Kottinger, John W., Pleasanton.
 Kottinger, Maggie, San Jose.
 Kraft, E. H., Redwood City.
 Krebs, Mrs. Henry, San Francisco.
 Krull, P. A., Clarksburg.
 Kuhn, P. H., Rio Vista.
 Kukrunn, Mrs. W. H., Oakland.
 Kullak, Anna M., Castroville.
 Kusel, E. A., Oroville.
 Lacy, Daniel B., Orland.
 Lacy, Flora E., San Diego.
 Laguna, Anita de, Oakland.
 Laguna, Laura de, Oakland.
 Lahe, Effie H., Mills Seminary.
 Lahiff, James T., Holliston.
 Lahoney, Mary E., South San Francisco.
 Lahy, Mary, San Jose.
 Laird, Kate, San Francisco.
 Lake, M., San Francisco.
 Lamasney, Wm., Stockton.
 Lambert, D., San Francisco.
 Lane, Mrs. J. B., San Francisco.
 Langley, Celia, San Francisco.
 Langley, Mrs. M. F., Oakland.
 Langsdon, Vernia, Red Bluff.
 Langstadter, P., San Francisco.
 Larcher, Edward, San Francisco.
 Larish, Winifred, Lemoore.
 Larkey, Geo. E., Newhall.
 Larkin, H. Christine, Oakland.
 Larkins, Elwood O., Visalia.
 Larsen, Mary, Placerville.
 Lastreto, Anita M., San Francisco.
 Latham, C. E., Hollister.
 Latham, Wm. B., San Francisco.
 Lathrop, Ada, Tulare City.
 Lathrop, Eva, Tulare City.
 Lawhead, Rosamond, Rio Vista.
 Lawless, Nellie, Martinez.
 Lawlove, Ella, San Francisco.
 Lawson, Louis B., Los Angeles.
 Lawlor, Mrs. Emma, San Francisco.
 Lawton, Mrs. George W., San Francisco.
 Lavers, David, Glenville.
 Layman, Jos. D., Berkeley.
 Leatty, Alice, Redwood.
 Leadbetter, W. R., Stockton.
 Learned, Ella M., Stockton.
 Leavitt, Mary E., Mokelumne Hill.
 LeConte, Joseph, Berkeley.
 Lee, Mrs. Franc, Oakland.
 Lee, Hattie, Woodland.
 Lee, Helen, Winters.
 Lee, Mattie, Woodland.

CALIFORNIA--CONTINUED.

- Lee, Jennie, Woodland.
 Lee, May, Callahans.
 Lee, Mrs. Harriett J., Oakland.
 Leech, Mrs. Marion V., Grass Valley.
 Leek, G. G., San Francisco.
 Leet, Cynthia P., East Oakland.
 Lefler, Kate F., San Jose.
 Lehan, M. S., San Francisco.
 Leibert, M. J., San Francisco.
 Leibert, Mrs. M. J., San Francisco.
 Leighton, E., Pescadero.
 Leighton, Leon, Redding.
 Leighton, Mrs. M. R., San Francisco.
 Leimbach, Edith, Sacramento.
 Leimbach, Mabel M., Sacramento.
 Leland, Cordelia, Jamestown.
 Leland, Edna, Santa Barbara.
 Leland, Gertrude, Santa Barbara.
 Leland, Hattie, Watsonville.
 Leland, Nellie, Woodland.
 Lemon, Josephine, Oakland.
 Lemmon, J. G., Oakland.
 Lemmon, Mrs. S. P., Oakland.
 Leonard, Gertrude L., Oakland.
 Lester, Mrs. Emily F., San Francisco.
 Leszynsky, Isidore, San Francisco.
 Levinson, Rose, San Francisco.
 Levy, Eva, San Francisco.
 Levy, Ray, San Francisco.
 Lewis, Alice, Los Gatos.
 Lewis, Francis R., San Francisco.
 Lewis, Johanna C., Sacramento.
 Lewis, Julia, San Francisco.
 Lewis, Rose P., San Francisco.
 Leymon, J. E., San Francisco.
 Libby, Darville, San Francisco.
 Libby, G. T., San Francisco.
 Lichtenberg, Rosalie, San Francisco.
 Light, Mary P., San Francisco.
 Lighthall, Geo. E., New Almaden.
 Lillie, John B., Lodi.
 Lillybridge, Clara, Los Angeles.
 Limbaugh, Minnie, Rio Vista.
 Lincoln, T. W., Ione.
 Lindberg, E. W., San Francisco.
 Linder, Mrs. S. O., Nulpetas.
 Lindsay, C. E., Santa Cruz.
 Lindsay, W. K., Sheldon.
 Linscott, Fred. A., Soquel.
 Linscott, J. W., Watsonville.
 Linscott, Mrs. J. W., Watsonville.
 Linsley, Mrs. E. W., San Francisco.
 Lipman, M. E., San Francisco.
 Lipowitz, Max, Sacramento.
 Lissner, Louis, San Francisco.
 Lisson, Tillie C., Oakland.
 Litchfield, S. E., Sebastopol.
 Litchfield, Annie M., Merced.
 Little, Charles S., Bayside.
 Little, Dillie E., San Francisco.
 Little, F. E., Pomona.
 Little, Lizzie B., San Francisco.
 Little, M. T., San Francisco.
 Littlebrant, Katherine, Athlone.
 Littlejohn, E. H., East Oakland.
 Locke, D. W., Santa Cruz.
 Lockhart, Nettie, Biggs.
 Locklin, Mrs. M. W., Nevada City.
 Lockwood, L., Crescent City.
 Logan, Ella L., Redding.
 Logan, Mrs. Grace B., Bishop Creek.
 Logan, M. H., San Francisco.
 Long, Annie, Antioch.
 Long, J. A., Red Bluff.
 Long, Lizzie, Red Bluff.
 Long, Mrs. Orpha A., Vacaville.
 Long, R. C., Gridley.
 Longenour, Miss, Woodland.
 Longfellow, Lucy, Los Angeles.
 Loomis, Eda, Santa Barbara.
 Loomy, Mrs. A. L., Alameda.
 Lords, Ella, Alviso.
 Lorentzen, Estelle, Martinez.
 Lorigan, Minnie E., Santa Clara.
 Lottman, B. Dena, Santa Rosa.
 Loucks, Annie, Pacheco.
 Loucks, Lizzie M., Pacheco.
 Loud, Mrs. E. S., San Francisco.
 Louderbock, L., San Francisco.
 Loughlin, D. A., San Francisco.
 Love, Frank, Roberts.
 Love, Ida, Danville.
 Love, Mrs. Josie, San Francisco.
 Love, M. Lilly, Los Gatos.
 Lovejoy, Emma, Tulare.
 Lovelace, Emma, Colusa.
 Loveland, Alice J., New Jerusalem.
 Loveland, Julia W., San Francisco.
 Loveland, May W., San Francisco.
 Lovell, Mrs. C. A., Placerville.
 Lowden, M. J., Oakland.
 Lowe, Agnes, Beswick.
 Lowe, Mrs. A., San Francisco.
 Lowe, Ralph, San Jose.
 Lowe, S. E., Yolo.
 Lowe, W. O., Selma.
 Lowell, Mrs. A. C., Auburn.
 Lowell, J. M., Auburn.
 Lowrey, Lizzie, Red Bluff.
 Lowrey, Maggie E., Marysville.
 Lowrey, Mrs. Ida M., Clipper Gap.
 Luce, Jennie D., Healdsburg.
 Luckey, Mrs. Bertha M., Ontario.
 Luckey, G. W. A., Ontario.
 Ludlum, Mrs. E. N., San Diego.
 Lunat, J. C., San Francisco.
 Lundberg, Mary, San Francisco.
 Luse, Mrs. Lydia F., San Francisco.
 Lyman, G. B., Yuba City.
 Lyman, M. J., San Francisco.
 Lynch, Alice E., San Francisco.
 Lynch, H. W., Centreville.
 Lynch, Josie, San Francisco.
 Lynch, Maggie M., Oroville.
 Lynch, Mary E., Gridley.
 Lynch, Nellie R., Oakland.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- Lynch**, Mrs. W. F., Walnut Creek.
Lynch, W. F. B., Centreville.
Lyne, G. W., San Francisco.
Lyons, G. W., Merced.
Lyser, Albert, San Francisco.
Maar, Fred. H., Oakland.
Maccord, Louise, San Francisco.
MacDonald, A., San Francisco.
Macdonald, K., San Francisco.
MacEwen, Alex., San Francisco.
Mack, Mrs. G. A., Ione.
Mack, Geo. F., Ione.
Macken, Maggie, Napa.
MacKenzie, Helen, San Diego.
MacKenzie, Mrs. L., Pleasanton.
MacLeod, Emma B., Hollister.
Madden, Adelia E., Menlo Park.
Madden, A. G., Oakland.
Madden, May, San Francisco.
Madden, Saddle A., San Francisco.
Magner, M., San Francisco.
Maguire, Jas. A., San Francisco.
Maher, Julia G., San Francisco.
Maher, Mary E., San Francisco.
Maher, Minnie, Sutter Creek.
Mahoney, Lizzie T., Point Arena.
Mahoney, M. J., San Francisco.
Maiers, Florence L., San Francisco.
Malcolm, Esther V., Watsonville.
Malcolm, N. E., Hansonville.
Malin, Mrs., Los Angeles.
Malloch, James, Oakland.
Mallory, G. W., Lakeport.
Mallory, Ida R., San Francisco.
Malone, J. W., Borden.
Maloney, Nellie A., San Francisco.
Manderville, K., San Francisco.
Mann, A. L., San Francisco.
Mann, J., Chico.
Mann, James M., Woodland.
Mann, John, Cohasset.
Mann, Mrs. S. J., San Francisco.
Mann, Seth, San Francisco.
Manning, A. L., San Francisco.
Manning, Agnes M., San Francisco.
Manning, R. H., Antelope.
Manpay, Emma, San Francisco.
Mansfield, Mary E., Columbia.
Mansfield, Wm., Columbia.
Manty, R. W., San Jose.
Manzer, John, San Jose.
Marcus, Lottie, Columbia.
Marcus, Millie, Oakland.
Marion, Mrs. E. D., East Oakland.
Maris, Leora, Elsinore.
Mark, C. W., Bethany.
Markham, Mrs. Annie, Placerville.
Marks, Bernard, San Francisco.
Marsh, Mrs. Addie, Coleville.
Marsh, Albert E., Dougherty Station.
Marsh, Kate, East Oakland.
Marshall, L. P., Collinsville.
Martin, Mrs. A. B., Fresno.
Martin, A. M., San Francisco.
Martin, Azariah, Hollister.
Martin, Emily L., San Francisco.
Martin, Emily J., Livermore.
Martin, Fannie, San Francisco.
Martin, F. P., San Francisco.
Martin, Hattie V., San Francisco.
Martin, Henry, Deadwood.
Martin, Jessie, San Francisco.
Martin, J. N., College Park.
Martin, J. M., Fresno.
Martin, Lillie A., Lakeport.
Martin, Maggie, Hollister.
Martin, Mary, Summersville.
Martin, Nellie, San Francisco.
Martinez, Mrs. C. K., San Francisco.
Marts, Mary, Merced.
Mason, Cannie, Sacramento.
Mason, Mattie, Healdsburg.
Mason, W. M., Lockford.
Masterson, D. E., Red Bluff.
Matheson, Malinda, Butte City.
Mathews, Henry S., Fort Jones.
Mathews, Lizzie, Milton.
Mathews, Mrs. J. T., Siskiyou.
Mathews, Mrs. Mary E., San Francisco.
Mathewson, Ida, Fort Jones.
Mathewson, Nellie G., Fort Jones.
Mathienson, Grace, San Francisco.
Matlock, Bella, Red Bluff.
Matlock, Mrs. J. T., Red Bluff.
Matson, Fannie L., San Francisco.
Matthis, Lottie J., San Jose.
Matthis, Maggie R., Valleton.
Maxwell, Mrs. Lutitia A., Napa City.
Maxwell, J. D., San Francisco.
Maxwell, T. J., Winters.
May, Ada, Pleasanton.
Mayborn, Mrs. Mary J., Oakland.
Mayer, Jessie, San Diego.
Mayer, J. L., San Francisco.
Mayer, Lottie, San Diego.
Mayers, Bessie, San Francisco.
Mayers, Rachel, San Francisco.
Mayhew, Frank, Pasadena.
Maynard, Mrs. A. L., Riverside.
Mayne, Bessie J., San Jose.
Mayrisch, Adolph, San Francisco.
McAdam, I., Watsonville.
McAllen, Maggie E., San Andreas.
McAllep, Lizzie, Tomales.
McArthur, A. W., Dixon.
McAuliffe, Mary E., Grass Valley.
McBride, J. W., Etna.
McCabe, Ella, Brentwood.
McCall, Mrs. C. H., Stockton.
McCall, William I., Selma.
McCall, Mrs. J. M., Stockton.
McCann, F. W., Eureka.
McCann, Lillian, Eureka.
McCarthy, E. L., San Francisco.
McCarthy, John, San Francisco.
McCarthy, Kate, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- McCarthy, Kate, Los Angeles.
 McCarthy, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 McCarthy, T. H., St. Helena.
 McCarty, L. P., San Francisco.
 McCarty, Tillie, San Francisco.
 McCaughly, James, Smith's Ranch.
 McCauley, Annie, Antioch.
 McCauley, Annie, Vallejo.
 McCharles, D. L., Tustin City.
 McCharles, Mrs. Florence E., Tustin City.
 McChesney, J. B., Oakland.
 McClain, Kate, San Francisco.
 McClain, M. E., Modesto.
 McClain, J. O., Los Angeles.
 McCleave, Esther, Pasadena.
 McCleery, Ella, Sacramento.
 McClelland, V. F., Gilroy.
 McClenathan, Birdie, Merced.
 McClenathan, Della, Merced.
 McCloud, Edith, San Diego.
 McClure, Mrs. E. T., Modesta.
 McClure, M. R., Oakland.
 McClymonds, J. W., Oakland.
 McColgan, Kate, San Francisco.
 McComas, Mrs. Mollie, San Francisco.
 McConnell, Q. O., San Francisco.
 McConoughey, Ellen, San Diego.
 McCord, A. A., Oakland.
 McCord, Julia R., Oakland.
 McCorkell, L., San Francisco.
 McCormack, Mrs. Nellie, Chico.
 McCormick, E. J., Orange.
 McCormick, Harritt, Sacramento.
 McCormick, M. S., Santa Rosa.
 McCourt, C. A., Lockford.
 McCoy, Carrie B., Los Angeles.
 McCoy, G. C., Red Bluff.
 McCoy, Mrs. G. C., Red Bluff.
 McCoy, Jessie A., Los Angeles.
 McCracken, Catherine A., Oakland.
 McCray, Ella L., Hollister.
 McCroskey, Mollie, Hollister.
 McCulloch, Mrs. H. E., Tomales.
 McCulloch, Mary W., Santa Anna.
 McCulloch, T. S., Oakville.
 McCune, H. E., Dixon.
 McDade, John J., San Francisco.
 McDanel, Katie, Oakland.
 McDaniel, Eugene P., Marysville.
 McDermott, Annie F., San Francisco.
 McDonald, Donald J., San Francisco.
 McDonald, A. B., Oakland.
 McDonald, J. T., San Francisco.
 McDonald, Mrs. J. F., San Francisco.
 McDonald, Mary, San Jose.
 McDonald, Mrs. A. J., East Oakland.
 McDonald, Mrs. Laura, St. Helena.
 McDonald, William, Livermore.
 McDonnell, Louise, San Francisco.
 McDonnell, May, San Francisco.
 McDougall, Alice S., San Jose.
 McElroy, Nellie, San Leandro.
 McElwee, Kate, Auburn.
 McElwee, Mamie, Auburn.
 McEwen, J. H., Watsonville.
 McFadden, Belle, Los Angeles.
 McFadden, Emma, San Francisco.
 McFadden, J. L., Courtland.
 McFadden, Kittie, San Francisco.
 McFarland, N. J., San Francisco.
 McFarland, W. H., San Francisco.
 McFeeley, Susie M., Oakland.
 McGarr, Annie, Sheep Ranch.
 McGehee, Fannie P., San Jose.
 McGeough, Rose, San Francisco.
 McGlanflin, Mrs. S. W., San Francisco.
 McGown, Clara, San Francisco.
 McGrann, Cora F., Bakersfield.
 McGrath, T. J., St. Louis.
 McGrew, C. H., San Jose.
 McGrievy, E. J., San Francisco.
 McGuire, Blanche, San Francisco.
 McGuire, Mary, San Francisco.
 McHarry, Mary, Martinez.
 McHarry, Mrs. Mattie, Glendora.
 McHugh, Mary, San Francisco.
 McIntosh, L. H., Chico.
 McKay, Fannie L., Oakland.
 McKay, Mabel M., Benicia.
 McKay, W., Hollister.
 McKeam, M., Alameda.
 McKean, Mrs. L., Redding.
 McKean, W. G., Dougherty Station.
 McKee, Eva, San Francisco.
 McKee, Mrs. J., San Francisco.
 McKee, Maggie, Livermore.
 McKenna, Edward, Shingle Springs.
 McKenney, Adah M., San Jose.
 McKenzie, L. A., San Francisco.
 McKenzie, M., San Francisco.
 McKeon, Rosa, Nevada City.
 McKerras, J. T., Cottonwood.
 McKinney, Mary C., San Francisco.
 McKown, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 McLaren, Jennie, Alameda.
 McLaughlin, Abbie, San Francisco.
 McLaughlin, Agnes, San Francisco.
 McLaughlin, J. H., Copperopolis.
 McLaughlin, Mrs. W. P., Reno.
 McLean, Kate D., Oakland.
 McLean, M. H., Alameda.
 McLean, Minnie A., Belmont.
 McLean, Mrs. S. E., Berkeley.
 McLean, Walter J., Coronado.
 McLellan, Mary Belle, San Mateo.
 McLeod, Edith, San Diego.
 McMahan, Margaret, Martinez.
 McMeans, O. C., Santa Rosa.
 McMeekan, E., Alameda.
 McMillan, J. G., Mayfield.
 McMillen, Clara, Riverside.
 McMullan, Emily, Oakland.
 McMullen, Belle, Modesto.
 McNair, M. J., Pasadena.
 McNamara, Katie, Redwood City.
 McNear, Lucy C., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

y, Ella C., Oakland.
 oll, Belle, San Francisco.
 y, W. J., Woodside.
 il, Fannie, Benicia.
 rson, W. L., Mariposa.
 rson, Mrs. S. W., San Jose.
 lips, Anna E., San Francisco.
 id, Mary, Smartsville.
 ldy, Wm. R., Hanford.
 , J. C., Tulare City.
 eney, Anna, Santa Cruz.
 eney, Martha, San Francisco.
 a, Gertrude, Haywards.
 y, Mary, San Francisco.
 iams, Jennie A., Vallejo.
 Frankie, Soledad.
 Nellie, Chico.
 , Lilly E., San Francisco.
 rs, Nora, Woodland.
 S. P., Oakland.
 rs. James, San Francisco.
 Mary E., Oakland.
 n, Ambrose, Mission San Jose.
 , Lisetta, Alameda.
 n, Kate E., San Francisco.
 A. S., Enterprise.
 Carrie, San Buenaventura.
 Laura M., Mills Seminary.
 , Mrs. M. A., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. Mary H., San Francisco.
 Mrs. Joseph, Davisville.
 nt, Cora, Vacaville.
 h, C. T., San Buenaventura.
 ena, St. Helena.
 ouise C., St. Helena.
 y, W. O., Bishop Creek.
 n, Mrs. Edith, Pasadena.
 a, Ella P., San Francisco.
 a, Florence A., Pasadena.
 a, Mrs. C. H., Pasadena.
 a, W. W., Pasadena.
 Carrie S., Sacramento.
 Mrs. M. D., Sacramento.
 Jennie S., Red Bluff.
 Helen W., San Francisco.
 Miss, San Francisco.
 , Chas. E., St. Helena.
 C. E., Oakland.
 , A. H., San Francisco.
 , E. Louisa, Lockford.
 Fred. Roberts.
 Hattie, San Benito.
 R., San Francisco.
 J. F., Livermore.
 or. Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 mina, Bakersfield.
 ia M., Fresno.
 lay, San Francisco.
 , A., San Francisco.
 Mrs. A. A., Colusa.
 A. C., San Francisco.
 Alice E., San Francisco.
 Belle, Red Bluff.

Miller, Branch M., Colusa.
 Miller, Chas. S., Napa City.
 Miller, E. J., San Francisco.
 Miller, Emma, Lafayette.
 Miller, Etta, Napa.
 Miller, Juliette B., Colusa.
 Miller, Lillie J., New Almaden.
 Miller, Lizzie N., Visalia.
 Miller, Maude, Fort Bidwell.
 Miller, May W., San Francisco.
 Miller, Minnie E., San Francisco.
 Miller, Mrs. A. L., Oakland.
 Miller, Mrs. E. M., Colusa.
 Miller, Mrs. R. E., San Francisco.
 Miller, Narcissa J., Los Angeles.
 Miller, Nellie, Sacramento.
 Miller, Newton C., French Corral.
 Miller, S. C., Woodland.
 Miller, Sarah E., San Francisco.
 Miller, W. H., San Francisco.
 Miller, Mrs. W. H., San Francisco.
 Millhone, Belle M., Nevada City.
 Milliken, Mrs. I. T., San Francisco.
 Mills, Carrie M., Menlo Park.
 Mills, Mrs. Maine, Hill's Ferry.
 Mills, Mrs. S. L., Mills Seminary.
 Minns, George W., San Francisco.
 Minor, Ella R., Olema.
 Minor, Geo. W., San Francisco.
 Minor, Grace D., San Francisco.
 Mitchel, Edgar L., Ferndale.
 Mitchell, A. J., Hope Valley.
 Mitchell, Annie E., Watsonville.
 Mitchell, E. H., San Francisco.
 Mitchell, Jan. A., San Francisco.
 Mitchell, Jessie R., Pasadena.
 Mitchell, Lucy A., Orland.
 Mitchell, Lizzie, Germantown.
 Mixon, Etta, St. Helena.
 Mize, T. J., Vacaville.
 Mohley, Darius A., Woodbridge.
 Mock, Alonzo W., Rohnerville.
 Moffat, Ada, San Francisco.
 Mogeau, Belle, San Bernardino.
 Mogeau, M., San Bernardino.
 Molloy, Bessie, San Francisco.
 Molloy, Jodie, San Francisco.
 Molloy, Nellie, San Jose.
 Monahan, Lizzie, San Jose.
 Monahan, Minnie A., San Francisco.
 Montgomery, Frank P., San Jose.
 Mooney, Fannie, San Francisco.
 Moore, Mrs. B. F., Riverside.
 Moore, Chetella, Fair Play.
 Moore, E. L., Stockton.
 Moore, Eliza, Benicia.
 Moore, Fannie A., Watsonville.
 Moore, Mrs. H. A., Oakland.
 Moore, Lizzie B., Colusa.
 Moore, Margaretta, San Francisco.
 Moore, Mary E., Benicia.
 Moore, Mattie E., San Francisco.
 Moore, Nellie L., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Moores, Charles W., Centerville.
 Morroscos, C., San Francisco.
 Moran, John, San Mateo.
 More, Ira, Los Angeles.
 Morehouse, Helen M., Vacaville.
 Morehouse, Mrs. L. C., San Leandro.
 Morey, Fanny, Watsonville.
 Morey, S. E., San Francisco.
 Morgan, Belle M., Oroville.
 Morgan, E. B., Gridley.
 Morgan, Ed. J., Nevada City.
 Morgan, Geo. P., Columbia.
 Morgan, Mrs. H. A., Stockton.
 Morgan, Hope, Benicia.
 Morgan, M. E., Santa Cruz.
 Morgan, Rosa E., San Francisco.
 Morgan, S. H., Gridley.
 Moroney, M. E., San Francisco.
 Morrell, Lizzie M., Wrights.
 Morrill, Alice, Kernville.
 Morris, Clarissa, Oakland.
 Morris, Ella, Woodland.
 Morris, Hannah, Jamestown.
 Morris, James, Marshalls.
 Morris, K. C., Oakland.
 Morris, Mamie L., San Francisco.
 Morris, Mary E., Oakland.
 Morrison, Annie, Compton.
 Morrison, E. M., Oakland.
 Morrison, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Morrison, Mattie, San Jose.
 Morrison, M., Los Angeles.
 Morrow, Sadie, Oakland.
 Morse, Georgia C., San Francisco.
 Morse, G. W., Franklin.
 Morse, Nellie A., San Francisco.
 Morse, Samuel B., Oakland.
 Mortee, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Morton, Carrie L., San Francisco.
 Morton, E. J., San Francisco.
 Morton, Frank, San Francisco.
 Morton, Mrs. J. M., Rutherford.
 Mosher, Emma F., Santa Cruz.
 Mosher, Libbie, Los Angeles.
 Moss, Ernest Y., San Francisco.
 Mould, Mrs. H. E., San Francisco.
 Moulton, Edith D., Linden.
 Moulton, Mrs. Irving F., San Francisco.
 Moulton, Jas. S., Linden.
 Moulton, Mrs. J. Tilden, San Francisco.
 Mount, Daisy, San Francisco.
 Mower, F. O., Napa City.
 Moyer, W. F., Napa City.
 Moynihan, Lizzie J., San Francisco.
 Moynihan, Nora, San Francisco.
 Muecke, G., San Francisco.
 Mulgrew, Alice M., Camanche.
 Mulgrew, Mary A., Camanche.
 Mullen, Annie, Ione.
 Mullen, H. M., Oakland.
 Mumford, Mrs. M. E., Sacramento.
 Muncey, Clara L., Grass Valley.
 Munger, Eugenia, Pasadena.
 Munro, Mrs. L. D., Stockton.
 Munson, Mary F., Los Angeles.
 Munyan, Emery, Newark.
 Murnan, Frank T., Sonora.
 Murphy, Anna C., Iona Hill.
 Murphy, Annie L., Brentwood.
 Murphy, Chas. H., Visalia.
 Murphy, Clara A., Perkins.
 Murphy, Ella F., Watsonville.
 Murphy, C. H., Visalia.
 Murphy, Julia A., San Francisco.
 Murphy, J. L., San Francisco.
 Murphy, Maggie F., San Francisco.
 Murphy, Mary S., Weimar.
 Murphy, Mary S., Iona Hill.
 Murphy, M. M., San Francisco.
 Murphy, Nellie, San Francisco.
 Murray, Addie, Los Angeles.
 Murray, Eugenia, Monterey.
 Murray, Kitty, Pine Grove.
 Murray, Mrs. L. J., Otay.
 Murray, Mamey, Roseville.
 Murry, M., Petaluma.
 Mury, Lili, San Francisco.
 Muscott, Mabel, San Bernardino.
 Myer, F., Roberts.
 Myer, Hattie, San Benito.
 Myer, R., San Francisco.
 Myers, J. F., Livermore.
 Myers, Mrs. Lena M., San Francisco.
 Myrick, Elizabeth B., Oakland.
 Myrick, E. P., Los Angeles.
 Myrick, G. F., Sitis.
 Myrick, Lillie, Santa Cruz.
 Myrick, Sadie E., Oakland.
 Naffzinger, Mrs. J., Nevada City.
 Nagle, Mrs. Mary, Sacramento.
 Naismith, G. S., Oakland.
 Nanse, C. P., Salinas City.
 Nash, John C., Spanishtown.
 Nash, Minnie, Hollister.
 Nason, Lucy M., Dunnigan.
 Nason, Mary E., San Felipe.
 Neider, Fred A., Grizzly Flat.
 Neilon, Lizzie, Gazelle.
 Nellis, Mrs. Francis, San Diego.
 Nellis, William, Sommersville.
 Nelson, A. G., San Francisco.
 Nelson, H. A., Berkeley.
 Nesbitt, Jean W., Oakland.
 Neuebaumer, Mary T., Columbia.
 Neuebaumer, T., Columbia.
 Neuer, Rosa, Oakland.
 Nevison, Mary, San Francisco.
 Newberry, Mrs. C. J., Alameda.
 Newby, E., Traver.
 Newcomb, M. L., Oakland.
 Newcomer, Jacob, Tamales.
 Newcum, Anna, Oakland.
 Newell, E. C., Livermore.
 Newhall, Mrs. Cecilia, San Francisco.
 Newman, Dora, Hydesville.
 Newman, Kate, St. Helena.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- nan, Nettie M., Santa Cruz.
 on, L., Woodland.
 on, Mrs. H. N. S., Dixon.
 on, Nellie. Oakland.
 wonger, Agnes H., Tulare City.
 ol, Kelso J., Yankee Hill.
 oll, Ruth A., San Pablo.
 ols, Mrs. Mary. St. Helena.
 ols, Robert, Elk Grove.
 olson, Annie M., Madera.
 Emina I., Willets.
 ierrera, Madame S., San Francisco.
 n, Cecilia B., San Francisco.
 i, Edward, Callahans.
 a, Philomena M., San Francisco.
 ad. Mary, Oakland.
 i, M. G., San Francisco.
 ross, W. F., San Francisco.
 an, Mrs. Mary, Colusa.
 an, Mrs. Nellie, San Jose.
 an, W. F., Los Angeles.
 is, Albert, Placerville.
 is, Lizzie O., Napa City.
 a, Mrs. Ada W., San Francisco.
 a, Mrs. E. M., San Francisco.
 on, A., Oakland.
 on, Elizabeth P., San Juan.
 on, Mary E., San Rafael.
 on, Mary E. B., San Jose.
 ell, Joseph A., Merced.
 ell, Mrs. J. A., Merced.
 Little C., San Francisco.
 r, Mary J., San Francisco.
 olls, W. L., Calpella.
 r, Wm. M., jr., San Andreas.
 aumer, Mrs. F. A., Oakland.
 Josie B., San Francisco.
 J. W., San Francisco.
 Loretta, Monrovia.
 Mary A., Oakland.
 M. B., San Francisco.
 Mrs. A. B., Oakland.
 ey, A. D., Folsom.
 ien, Annie F., San Francisco.
 ien, Francis A., Livermore.
 ien, Julia, San Francisco.
 ien, Kate, San Francisco.
 ien, Kate C., San Francisco.
 ien, Kate M., San Francisco.
 ien, Lizzie G., Sacramento.
 ien, Maggie L., San Francisco.
 nnor, Alice, Napa City.
 nnor, Eleanor, Napa City.
 nnell, Jennie, San Francisco.
 nnell, Mary, Placerville.
 nnell, S. F., San Leandro.
 n, Ester E., Alta.
 n, Nellie, Sacramento.
 W. M. L., San Francisco.
 nlon, Fannie, San Jose.
 ra, Kate, San Jose.
 ra, Minnie, San Jose.
 ne, Anna, San Francisco.
 O'Keefe, Maggie, San Francisco.
 Oliphant, F., Anderson.
 Oliver, Carrie E., Soquel.
 Oliver, J. M., Suisun.
 Olmstead, Alina M., Jackson.
 Olmstead, Vesta A., Los Angeles.
 Olsen, Alvina, San Lorenzo.
 O'Mara, Joanna, San Francisco.
 O'Neal, Lizzie, Jamestown.
 O'Neal, Mrs. Mary L., San Francisco.
 O'Neil, Mrs. Mary, San Francisco.
 Oneto, Kate S., Sonora.
 Onyon, Sarah E., Gilroy.
 Orr, Annie, San Jose.
 Orr, John A., Hill's Ferry.
 Orr, L. A., San Francisco.
 Ortega, D. M., Sonora.
 Orton, Alice G., Berry Creek.
 Orton, Francis B., Berry Creek.
 Osborn, Annis, San Jose.
 Osborn, Charles V., Elk Grove.
 Osborn, Mrs. F. P., Elk Grove.
 Osgood, Mrs. S. R., Oakland.
 Otis, Chas. W., Petaluma.
 Otto, Charlotte, San Francisco.
 Ousley, Clara, Gilroy.
 Overstreet, Mary, Mills Seminary.
 Owen, Mrs. A. E., San Francisco.
 Owen, Mrs. H. D., San Jose.
 Owen, Mae, Santa Barbara.
 Owen, Mamie, Napa City.
 Owens, Mrs. Mattie, San Francisco.
 Owens, Mollie, Red Bluff.
 Owens, Nellie M., San Francisco.
 Ozenberger, Minnie, Middletown.
 Packard, Lizzie A., Los Angeles.
 Page, D. E., San Francisco.
 Page, Mary H., San Francisco.
 Paine, Alice V., Meridian.
 Paine, Maggie, Sacramento.
 Palmer, Mrs. Angie C., San Francisco.
 Palmerlee, Mary H., San Jose.
 Pardee, Carrie, Watsonville.
 Paris, Mrs. A. C., Alameda.
 Parish, Myra, Los Angeles.
 Parker, Alex., jr., Etna Mills.
 Parker, A. M., Sacramento.
 Parker, Bernie, San Jose.
 Parker, D. W., Elk Grove.
 Parker, Flora A., Oakland.
 Parker, Mattie, Lockport.
 Parker, Jenn, San Francisco.
 Parker, Jennie C., San Francisco.
 Parker, Lizzie A., Berkeley.
 Parker, Marion G., San Francisco.
 Parker, Mary F., Meridian.
 Parker, Orin W., Oakland.
 Parker, Violet L., Livermore.
 Parkhurst, Mrs. D. W., San Francisco.
 Parkhurst, T. A., Sonoma.
 Parker, Clyde, Marysville.
 Parker, Mary, Marysville.
 Parker, Mary, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Parmelee, M. A., Los Angeles.
 Parnell, W. F., Sacramento.
 Parolini, Mrs. M. J., San Francisco.
 Parr, I., Chico.
 Parson, Agnes M., Fresno City.
 Parsons, Anna M., San Francisco.
 Pasco, William, jr., San Jose.
 Pasco, Mrs. William, San Jose.
 Patch, Louisa, San Francisco.
 Patchett, Virginia, San Francisco.
 Patrick, H. W., San Francisco.
 Patterson, Alma, San Diego.
 Patterson, Hattie, Stockton.
 Patterson, Isabella, San Francisco.
 Patterson, J. G., Rontiers.
 Patterson, Laura, San Jose.
 Patton, J. R., San Francisco.
 Payne, Martha H., San Francisco.
 Payne, Mrs. Frank, Berkeley.
 Peake, Mrs. B. M., San Francisco.
 Pearce, Maude, Rio Vista.
 Pearson, Lillian M., Oakland.
 Pechin, Mrs. C. R., San Francisco.
 Peck, Annie E., San Diego.
 Peck, Lydia, Merced.
 Peckham, Lois A., San Jose.
 Pedlar, Minnie M., Gilroy.
 Pedrick, Wm. L., Bridgeville.
 Pedrick, W. S., Dixon.
 Pelham, Berenice, Oakland.
 Pelham, Arkansa, San Francisco.
 Pelham, Mary E., Oakland.
 Pender, Agnes, San Jose.
 Penwell, Lelia, Cholane.
 Pepper, M. W., North San Diego.
 Perea, Florence A., Oakland.
 Perkins, Alice E., Clipper Gap.
 Perkins, Annie F., San Francisco.
 Perkins, Chas. C., Isleton.
 Perkins, D. K., Oroville.
 Perkins, John B., Paicines.
 Perkins, Madge H., Santa Cruz.
 Perkins, Minnie A., Alameda.
 Perley, Minnie M., Los Angeles.
 Perry, Dora A., Los Angeles.
 Perry, Emma L., Chico.
 Perry, Lizzie, Stockton.
 Perry, Mrs. S., Stockton.
 Peters, C. R., Petaluma.
 Peters, Francis A., Petaluma.
 Peters, Geo., Sacramento.
 Peterson, P. P., Fort Jones.
 Petrie, Wm. M., Sacramento.
 Pettit, E. T., San Jose.
 Pettit, H. L., San Jose.
 Phalin, A. M., Martinez.
 Phelan, Ella, Lakeport.
 Phelan, Mary E., Groveland.
 Phelps, Alta C., Eureka.
 Phelps, Mrs. J. H., San Francisco.
 Phelps, Mary, San Diego.
 Phelps, Mattie M., Yolo.
 Phelps, Niel S., Eureka.
 Phillips, Abbie F., Lewiston.
 Phillips, Emma B., Woodland.
 Phillips, H., San Francisco.
 Phillips, Laura, Sacramento.
 Phillips, Lucy U., Lewiston.
 Phillips, Maria E., San Francisco.
 Phillips, Rose, San Francisco.
 Pierce, E. A., Mission San Jose.
 Pierce, E. T., Pasadena.
 Pierpont, Maria G., San Juan.
 Pierpont, Olive, Santa Barbara.
 Pike, Anna E., San Francisco.
 Pillott, Mrs. Mary, San Jose.
 Pillsbury, Francis I., Sacramento.
 Pinckney, Herbert, Pasadena.
 Pinkham, E. M., San Francisco.
 Pinkham, Sarah M., Pescadero.
 Pipe, Bertha L., Sacramento.
 Piper, Lillian A., Sacramento.
 Piper, Lilie K., San Francisco.
 Pitblado, C. B., San Francisco.
 Pitblado, C. B., jr., San Francisco.
 Pitblado, Sophia C., San Francisco.
 Plass, Mrs. C. W., Napa City.
 Playter, G. B., Napa City.
 Pleasants, G. W., Willow Ranch.
 Plumado, Mary E., Placerville.
 Plummer, Albertine, San Francisco.
 Plummer, Amos W., Los Angeles.
 Plummer, Chas. E., Binghamton.
 Plunkett, Carrie F., San Francisco.
 Pogue, Eugenia, Visalia.
 Pogue, Eva, Visalia.
 Polsley, Clara, Red Bluff.
 Polsley, Kate, Red Bluff.
 Pond, H. M., St. Helena.
 Pond, J. H., Sacramento.
 Pond, Mrs. N. F. W., Los Angeles.
 Poole, Ella M., San Francisco.
 Poore, Maggie, Redding.
 Pope, Libbie, Grass Valley.
 Poppe, Martha A., San Francisco.
 Porter, Mrs. Annie S., San Francisco.
 Porter, H. B., El Monte.
 Porter, O. B., San Francisco.
 Porterfield, Anna, Ukiah.
 Portmess, L. A., Cloverdale.
 Post, Lizzie J., Sutter Creek.
 Potter, B. B., Nevada City.
 Potter, Mary F., Oakland.
 Potts, Rhoda, Red Bluff.
 Poulson, Edna Snell, Oakland.
 Pounds, Jennie G., San Jose.
 Powell, Elizabeth, Oakland.
 Powell, Emma J., Stockton.
 Power, Mrs. I. M., Auburn.
 Power, Kate B., Anaheim.
 Power, Lizzie P., Auburn.
 Power, Marvin, Etta.
 Powers, Arthur C., San Francisco.
 Powers, Jennie O., Kings River.
 Powers, O. H., San Francisco.
 Pragg, Mrs. Mary, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Mrs. A. H., Oakland.
 Alice E., Santa Rosa.
 Carrie, Placerville.
 Robert F., San Francisco.
 Mattie J., Willits.
 tt, D. S., San Francisco.
 ous, Mamie, San Francisco.
 ous, Mrs. Mary, San Francisco.
 Mrs. E. B., Oroville.
 E. M., West Point.
 Mrs. Mary P., Woodland.
 Nettie, Sacramento.
 W. Edmond, San Francisco.
 , F. P., Redding.
 , Ettie M., Oakland.
 e, Benj. A., San Francisco.
 e, Lizzie, Halfmoon Bay.
 e, Mrs. S. G., Benicia.
 Mrs. Nellie, San Francisco.
 Philip, San Francisco.
 ard, Mrs. S. M., Stockton.
 or, Bertine E., Haywards.
 is, Mary L., Santa Clara.
 st, C. E., San Francisco.
 st, E. H., San Francisco.
 Ella G., North Temescal.
 aber, Mary H., Monterey.
 F. E., Anderson.
 Mrs. F. M., Oakland.
 Lizzie, San Francisco.
 an, Eleanor, Oakland.
 an, Ida M., San Francisco.
 an, Mary S., Oakland.
 l, Mary, Dixon.
 l, Sadie, Oakdale.
 , L. E., San Francisco.
 ll, Mrs. E. B., Sacramento.
 ie, J. C., Petaluma.
 , Mrs. J. P., Modesta.
 n, Belle, Maxwell.
 n, Flora, Butte City.
 Lizzie, Table Bluff.
 e, Annie M., Oakland.
 n, Kate G., San Francisco.
 V. M., San Francisco.
 rd, Cassie M., San Francisco.
 , D. F., San Francisco.
 , Geo. W., Eureka.
 ale, Lillie M., Clipper Gap.
 Marion, Woodland.
 s, J. W., San Jose.
 y, Julia, San Francisco.
 y, Mrs. Marion, E. Oakland.
 r, W., Santa Cruz.
 ell, Mrs. N. H., Alameda.
 E. K., Pasadena.
 ll, Alice J., Los Angeles.
 ll, Mrs. A. H., San Jose.
 lph. Mary M., Sutter Creek.
 n, Isabel, San Francisco.
 n, Victoria, San Francisco.
 un, C. W., Napa City.
 a, Volney, San Francisco.
 Raub, Nellie, Meriden.
 Raven, H. S., Parkfield.
 Ravenscroft, D. A. W., San Francisco.
 Raymond, Cecelia L., Berkeley.
 Raymond, Elissie H., Salinas.
 Raymond, Mrs. J. P., Salinas.
 Raymond, W. Y., Berkeley.
 Raymond, W. H. V., Pasadena.
 Read, Mrs. E. L., Lancileto.
 Reading, S. W., San Diego.
 Reardon, Josie M., Santa Cruz.
 Reardon, W. H., College City.
 Reasoner, Mrs. A. S., Forbestown.
 Reddy, M. A., San Francisco.
 Reed, L. W., San Francisco.
 Reese, Mrs. Thos., East Oakland.
 Reese, Thos., East Oakland.
 Regan, Agnes G., San Francisco.
 Regan, Annie A., San Francisco.
 Regan, Josie, Sacramento.
 Regan, Mary, San Francisco.
 Regan, Sadie I., San Francisco.
 Reid, J. E., Winters.
 Reid, Mary J., Alameda.
 Reilly, Regina, Oakland.
 Reith, Jno., Union House.
 Renfrow, J. H., Kelseyville.
 Rennie, Lizzie, Santa Cruz.
 Renwick, Louisa, San Francisco.
 Retter, C. M., Stockton.
 Reynolds, Ed. J., San Francisco.
 Reynolds, Elsie D., Oakland.
 Reynolds, Eva, San Francisco.
 Reynolds, H. Grace, Upper Lake.
 Reynolds, M. B., San Francisco.
 Reynolds, S. P., Woodland.
 Rhodes, Mabel, Santa Cruz.
 Rhodes, Mary L., West Oakland.
 Rice, Emily A., Los Angeles.
 Rice, Geo., King City.
 Rice, Geo. H., Redwood City.
 Rice, Mrs. Eunice I., San Jose.
 Rice, Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 Rice, Mrs. M. L., San Francisco.
 Rice, N., Gilroy.
 Richards, T. J., Winters.
 Richardson, Ada, Sacramento.
 Richardson, Alice, Oakland.
 Richardson, Anna M., Oakland.
 Richardson, Bessie, San Francisco.
 Richardson, Florence J., San Francisco.
 Richardson, H. J., Fair Play.
 Richardson, Irene, Sacramento.
 Richardson, L. S., San Francisco.
 Richardson, M. E., Oakland.
 Richardson, Mrs. E. B., San Francisco.
 Richert, Leonora Bella, Crescent City.
 Richmond, H. H., Auburn.
 Richmond, Olive L., Williams.
 Rickard, Nellie M., Los Gatos.
 Riddell, Lizzie S., Eureka.
 Riddle, Myrtle M., Colusa.
 Ridenour, E. H., Woodbridge.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Ridgaway, C. B., Napa City.
 Ridley, Ella S., Elk Creek.
 Riebsam, Henrietta E., Latrobe.
 Riehl, Kate M., Oroville.
 Riele, E., Sonora.
 Rigby, M. E., Santa Rosa.
 Rightmire, Jessie A., San Francisco.
 Rightmire, Sallie A., San Francisco.
 Riley, Annette, San Francisco.
 Riley, Ellen A., Concord.
 Riley, Geo. E., Grass Valley.
 Riley, Kate, San Francisco.
 Riley, Kate E., Emeryville.
 Riley, Maggie M., Grass Valley.
 Riley, Mary E., Antioch.
 Riley, Mary E., Emeryville.
 Riley, Mrs. M. J., San Francisco.
 Rine, G. W., Healdsburg.
 Ringo, M. Emma, San Jose.
 Rising, W. B., Berkeley.
 Ritter, W. E., Berkeley.
 Rivara, Teresa, San Andreas.
 Rix, Julia E., Irvington.
 Roache, Mrs. A. P., Watsonville.
 Robb, J. D., Merced.
 Robb, Maggie L., San Jose.
 Robb, M. H., Modesta.
 Robbins, Miss, Oakland.
 Robarts, Elzora, Fort Jones.
 Roberts, C. E., Elmira.
 Roberts, C. W., Los Angeles.
 Roberts, Emeline L., San Francisco.
 Roberts, Hattie M., San Diego.
 Roberts, Laura, Grafton.
 Roberts, Maria, San Francisco.
 Roberts, Mary C., Watsonville.
 Roberts, M. E., San Francisco.
 Roberts, Mrs. Alexena, San Francisco.
 Roberts, Mrs. Susan M., Fresno City.
 Robertson, A. C., San Francisco.
 Robertson, Maggie E., Paraiso Springs.
 Robertson, M. B., San Jose.
 Robertson, Margery C., San Francisco.
 Robertson, William A., San Francisco.
 Robinett, M. P., San Francisco.
 Robins, Daisy, Oakland.
 Robins, H. A., Oakland.
 Robinson, Anna, Covelo.
 Robinson, Geo. H., San Mateo.
 Robinson, J. H., Plainfield.
 Robinson, Mina, San Francisco.
 Robinson, Mrs. M. F., Menlo Park.
 Robinson, T. A., San Francisco.
 Robson, Edward, School House Station.
 Roche, T. J., San Francisco.
 Rockwell, Bertha, Dixon.
 Rockwell, Elisabeth A., San Francisco.
 Rockwood, Josephine, Santa Barbara.
 Rodden, Lizzie, San Francisco.
 Roden, Lillian, Alameda.
 Rodgers, James E., Martinez.
 Rodgers, Lizzie, Watsonville.
 Rodgers, Mrs. I. D., San Francisco.
 Roe, M. A., Los Angeles.
 Rogers, F. W., Gilroy.
 Rogers, J. D., Grass Valley.
 Rogers, Mrs. L. E., Grass Valley.
 Roller, Mrs. Susan E., San Francisco.
 Rollins, Annie, San Francisco.
 Rollins, J. S., Blacks.
 Root, Alice, San Francisco.
 Root, L. A., Fresno City.
 Roper, B., San Francisco.
 Roper, M. A., San Francisco.
 Roric, Mabel, Los Angeles.
 Rose, Jessie M., Eureka.
 Rosekrans, Mrs. H. M., San Francisco.
 Roseman, Mary T., Point Arena.
 Roseman, Thos. J., Point Arena.
 Rosenberg, L., San Francisco.
 Rosevear, Minnie, Grass Valley.
 Ross, Jeanne, Los Angeles.
 Ross, L. G., Santa Barbara.
 Ross, W. T., San Francisco.
 Rossi, Mrs. Chas., Watsonville.
 Rothganger, Geo., San Francisco.
 Rothschild, Joseph, San Francisco.
 Rouse, Marion, Los Gatos.
 Rousseau, E., Bakersfield.
 Rousseau, Mrs. Lida, San Jose.
 Roussel, Victoria E., Ocean View.
 Rowe, A. A., San Francisco.
 Rowe, Katie R., Oakland.
 Rowe, Maude M., San Francisco.
 Rowell, Gertrude F., Easton.
 Rowland, Martha L., Oakland.
 Royse, Anna, Hollister.
 Rubenstein, Mrs. Jennie, Oakland.
 Rucker, Susan M., San Jose.
 Ruckstell, J. R., San Francisco.
 Ruddock, J. C., San Francisco.
 Rudisill, Mrs. Susan, Oakland.
 Rudolph, Sallie S., San Francisco.
 Rue, E. D., San Francisco.
 Rue, Mrs. H. P., Oakland.
 Rugg, E. L., Woodland.
 Rumrill, Azro, San Pablo.
 Rumrill, Julia, San Pablo.
 Runckel, Christian, Dutch Flat.
 Rusch, H. H., Folsom.
 Russel, Lottie E., San Luis Obispo.
 Russell, David, Cholaine.
 Russell, Mary C., Stockton.
 Russell, Sadie, East Oakland.
 Russell, F. P., San Jose.
 Rutherford, Helen M., Vallejo.
 Ryan, Belle, San Francisco.
 Ryan, T. R., Red Bluff.
 Ryder, L. E., San Francisco.
 Saalberg, Julia, San Francisco.
 Sabin, I. A., Placerville.
 Sackett, Darius P., Oakland.
 Sagar, Charlotte, Santa Cruz.
 Sahlke, Margaret, Alameda.
 Salande, Blanch, Castroville.
 Samuels, Addie J., Salinas City.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

als, Minnie A., Salinas City.
 als, Mrs. H., Salinas City.
 ez, Pablo, San Francisco.
 rs, Lottie, Lincoln.
 oldt, Samuel, Centreville.
 rd, A. W., Pleasanton,
 rd, Garrard B., Sycamore.
 rd, L. S., Butte City.
 rd, Mamie L., Grass Valley.
 rd, Mattie, San Francisco.
 rd, Paul, Orland.
 sen, Sarah, Oroville.
 it, Anna, Santa Cruz.
 it, B. A., Monterey.
 it, Effie, Ventura.
 it, Lizzie P., San Jose.
 . Mrs. J., San Francisco.
 old, Maggie, Placerville.
 arion, Napa City.
 ers, Josephine, San Francisco.
 e, W. J., Halfmoon Bay.
 e, W. J., Menlo Park.
 r, W. C., San Jose.
 r, W. H., Auburn.
 imon, Yountville.
 , Thomas A., San Gabriel.
 i, Amy, Los Angeles.
 i, J. L., San Francisco.
 i, Katie P., Vacaville.
 ii, P., Santa Cruz.
 onberger, Margaret E., Santa Clara.
 zo, Maria, San Francisco.
 r, Hattie, San Francisco.
 r, Rose, San Francisco.
 el, Clara, Gilroy.
 lel, Ada, San Francisco.
 r, M. A., San Francisco.
 ig, L., San Jose.
 , John J., Alila.
 er, Ella, Placerville.
 gheyde, Helen, San Francisco.
 tt, Mrs. Jos., San Francisco.
 i, Lillie, San Jose.
 Emma, San Francisco.
 . Gerhard, San Jose.
 Julia M., San Francisco.
 er, Norman, Oakland.
 rze, Louisa, San Francisco.
 A. W., Santa Clara
 Belle T., San Francisco.
 Elizabeth, San Francisco.
 Gustave A., San Francisco.
 Josephine, San Francisco.
 Louise Belle, Placerville.
 Margaret K., Los Angeles.
 Mildred J., Oakland.
 Norah, Red Bluff.
 Mrs. M., Redding.
 nan, Lake Lakeport.
 r, W. H., San Francisco.
 n, E. A., Arroyo.
 n, John K., Los Angeles.
 Homer, San Diego.

Seaver, Marion E., Santa Cruz.
 Seehorn, Mary S., Rio Vista.
 Seidel, William, Martinez.
 Selkirk, Mary E., Placerville.
 Selling, Eugenia, San Francisco.
 Selling, Nathalie, San Francisco.
 Sexton, Caroline, Oroville
 Sexton, Ella M., San Francisco.
 Seymour, Mrs. E. M., Sacramento.
 Shannon, J. H., Bishop Creek.
 Sharpe, C. O., Yreka.
 Shattuck, Josephine L., Ben Lomond
 Shaver, Minnie, Maxwell.
 Shaw, Anna J., Napa City.
 Shaw, Clara, San Francisco.
 Shaw, Harriet L., Oakland.
 Shaw, Henry R., Warm Springs.
 Shaw, Ida E., San Francisco.
 Shaw, Jeanette, San Jose.
 Shaw, Mattie J., Lorin.
 Shaw, Mrs. B. A., San Francisco.
 Shaw, Mrs. L. A., Point Arena.
 Shea, Annie B., San Francisco.
 Shea, M. T., San Francisco.
 Shearer, F. M., San Francisco.
 Shearer, Helen, Oakland.
 Shearer, J. L., Napa City.
 Shearer, Mrs. J. L., Napa City.
 Shearer, S. M., Salinas City.
 Sheats, Arthur K., Oakland.
 Sheets, Mrs. Annie, Sacramento.
 Shelton, J. R., Colusa.
 Shelton, Lula A., Placerville.
 Shelton, Wm., Los Angeles.
 Shephard, Kate, Oakland.
 Sherfey, Allen, May.
 Sherman, Elizabeth M., Oakland.
 Sherwood, Mrs. E. M., San Diego.
 Sherwood, Mrs. Julia C., Kelseyville.
 Shine, Mary, Bearville.
 Shine, N., Columbia.
 Shiron, C. H., San Francisco.
 Shipley, J. C., Honora.
 Shipman, Elizabeth U., San Francisco
 Shipper, Minnie H., Stockton.
 Shuckley, Mrs. Harriet H., Oakland.
 Short, J. B., San Francisco.
 Shrode, Jennie, Dunsmuir.
 Shuey, H. H., Walnut Creek.
 Shuey, Mrs. M. C. K., Frazier.
 Shuhan, John A., Minertsville.
 Shuhaw, Mrs. Betty A., Arbutus.
 Sibley, Lillian K., Centerville.
 Sifford, Alex., San Jose.
 Silliman, John, Valparaiso.
 Simeon, B. P., Los Angeles.
 Simeon, Amanda, Millville.
 Simeon, J. A., Fresno.
 Simeon, J. C., Colusa.
 Simeon, J. H., Fresno.
 Simeon, Kate, Fresno.
 Simeon, Robert, San Francisco.
 Simeon, Mary, San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

Simon, Mrs. M., San Francisco.
 Simonson, Mrs. J. H., Merced.
 Simpson, Henrietta C., Oakland.
 Simpson, Lela A., Woodland.
 Simpson, Lillie M., San Francisco.
 Simpson, Lizzie A., San Francisco.
 Sims, Mrs. J. K., San Gregorio.
 Sims, William, Winters.
 Sinnott, Annie E., Table Rock.
 Siskron, Daisy, San Francisco.
 Siskron, Juliette, San Francisco.
 Sisson, Mrs. C. M., San Francisco.
 Sisson, Mrs. L. K., Los Gatos.
 Skinner, Esther C., Los Angeles.
 Skinner, Jarius L., Los Angeles.
 Skinner, Mary E., Lincoln.
 Slack, Cora S., Los Angeles.
 Slate, Mrs. F., Berkeley.
 Slaughter, Thos., Wrights.
 Slavan, Annie E., San Francisco.
 Slavan, Mary H., San Francisco.
 Slaven, T. D. M., Cherokee.
 Sleaton, Ellen A., San Francisco.
 Sleep, W. A., Grass Valley.
 Sleeper, M., San Francisco.
 Slusser, Mrs. Effie, Santa Rosa.
 Smalley, Francis A., Haywards.
 Smalley, Lelia M., Haywards.
 Smallman, Mrs. J. K., Oakland.
 Smiley, H. M., San Francisco.
 Smith, A. A., Kingsburg.
 Smith, Addie G., San Francisco.
 Smith, Adelaide, San Francisco.
 Smith, Alice, Lompoc.
 Smith, Emma C., Livermore.
 Smith, Emma E., Melville.
 Smith, E. M., Santa Cruz.
 Smith, E. O., Clipper Gap.
 Smith, Flora B., Santa Cruz.
 Smith, Fanny G., Oakland.
 Smith, Harper A., Alameda.
 Smith, Helen F., San Francisco.
 Smith, Ida M., Eureka.
 Smith, Ivy E., Salinas.
 Smith, James, Blue Lake.
 Smith, Jennie, San Francisco.
 Smith, Jessie, San Francisco.
 Smith, J. A., Manchester.
 Smith, J. D., Livermore.
 Smith, Landrum, Kingsburg.
 Smith, M. A., San Francisco.
 Smith, Mary E., Antioch.
 Smith, Mary J., San Francisco.
 Smith, Mary M., Pasadena.
 Smith, May L., Sutter Creek.
 Smith, Mrs. Jennie A., Oakland.
 Smith, Mrs. J. D., Livermore.
 Smith, Mrs. J. A. F., Fresno.
 Smith, Mrs. L. E., San Francisco.
 Smith, Mrs. Rebecca, Kingsburg.
 Smith, Mrs. V. E., San Francisco.
 Smith, Nellie L., Alameda.
 Smith, Nora A., San Francisco.

Smith, P. D., Grizzly Flat.
 Smith, Preston W., Dutch Flat.
 Smith, Sara H., San Francisco.
 Smith, Silvia, San Francisco.
 Smith, W. A. C., St. Helena.
 Smith, W. J., Courtland.
 Smithson, Emma, San Francisco.
 Smoote, Edith S., Elk Grove.
 Smyth, G. S., San Rafael.
 Smyth, M. L., San Francisco.
 Snell, Joel A., Alturas.
 Snell, Mary E., Oakland.
 Snell, Richard B., Oakland.
 Snell, Mrs. R. B., Oakland.
 Snell, Sarah H., Oakland.
 Snook, Jennie, West Oakland.
 Snook, S. H., Oakland.
 Soberanes, Mrs. L., Gonzales.
 Solinger, Mary, Woodbridge.
 Solomon, Mary, San Francisco.
 Solomons, Celina, San Francisco.
 Solomons, Mrs. H. M., San Francisco.
 Somers, Carrie, Newcastle.
 Somers, Cora, Newcastle.
 Somerset, Clara J., San Francisco.
 Sommer, C. J., Chico.
 Soule, F. L., San Francisco.
 Soule, Frank, Oakland.
 Soule, Maud, San Francisco.
 Soule, Maria L., San Francisco.
 Sowell, Jennie M., Chico.
 Sowle, Mrs. Etta, Hollister.
 Spalding, H. A., San Francisco.
 Spalsburg, Sara H., Santa Cruz.
 Sparks, G. M., Oroville.
 Spatz, Agnes A., West End.
 Spaulding, Ada A., Folsom.
 Spaulding, Mary, Napa.
 Spear, Mrs. Wm. S., San Francisco.
 Spencer, Birdie, Madison.
 Spencer, Elizabeth A., Eureka.
 Spencer, Nettie, San Francisco.
 Spencer, Pauline, Madison.
 Spencer, W. O., Cahto.
 Spooner, Alfred, Michigan Bar.
 Springstern, Zella, Napa.
 Sproul, Hattie B., Oakland.
 Stack, C. M., San Francisco.
 Stahl, Henry C. F., San Francisco.
 Staire, J. M., San Buenaventura.
 Stallman, Nettie C., San Francisco.
 Stalter, Minnie T., Redwood City.
 Standeford, Mrs. N. D., Oakland.
 Standeford, J. N., Oakland.
 Stanfield, Annie, Sacramento.
 Stanfield, Hattie V., Ukiah.
 Stanford, Belle M., San Francisco.
 Stansell T. R., Nelson.
 Starbird, A. T., San Diego.
 Starbird, A. W., San Francisco.
 Starbird, Mrs. A. W., San Francisco.
 Starbird, Mary, San Diego.
 Stark, Lillian M., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

er, T. K., San Francisco.
 e, L. Gertrude, Pleasanton.
 ns, H. P., Oakland.
 ns, Inez M., Eureka.
 ns, Mrs. Kate R., Arcata.
 ins, Georgianna, Los Angeles.
 ins, Minnie G., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. Jennie E., Oakland.
 , Mrs. M., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. M. E., San Francisco.
 , T. H., Brownsville.
 iger, E. V., San Buenaventura.
 metz, Alice, Santa Cruz.
 ens, Annie L., Cedarville.
 ens, J. J., Madison.
 ens, Mary R., Santa Clara.
 ens, Mrs. W., Winsor.
 enson, J. M., Franklin.
 ng, Edward T., San Francisco.
 on, Albert, Los Angeles.
 on, Mrs. Albert, Los Angeles.
 an, Mary E., Visalia.
 ns, E. A., Oakland.
 ns, Mrs. E. P., San Francisco.
 ns, Mrs. M. E., Bishop Creek.
 s, Ada, Stockton.
 a, Amy, Stockton.
 rt, E. J., Haywards.
 rt, Jessie M., East Oakland.
 rt, Mary, Santa Cruz.
 rt, Mary E., Los Angeles.
 rt, Mary, Redwood City.
 rt, Mary J., Alma.
 rt, Mrs. H. H., Yreka.
 rt, Mrs. M. C., Ione.
 rt, Mrs. T. A., San Francisco.
 rt, V., San Francisco.
 elena School District, St. Helena.
 , S. A., Orland.
 on, C. L., Oroville.
 on, Ella M., San Jose.
 on, Hattie L., Black Diamond.
 , Gussie, Napa.
 en, A. M., San Francisco.
 en, Emma E., San Francisco.
 r, May, Woodland.
 r, Mrs. Jessie H., Eagleville.
 on, A. H., Marshall.
 Rosa, Napa City.
 ohn, Mrs. H. A., San Francisco.
 idale, J. F., Monterey.
 ley, Maggie, Napa.
 ley, May E., Napa.
 ton, Emma, San Jose.
 ton, Fannie, San Jose.
 ton, L. D., Merced.
 ton, Wm. W., San Francisco.
 ton, Mrs. W. W., San Francisco.
 lard, Birda E., San Francisco.
 lard, Clara M., Merced.
 , Tillie C., San Francisco.
 es, Lizzie H., Grass Valley.
 , R. B., San Francisco.

Stone, A. W., Alamo.
 Stone, Mrs. Brenda H., Oakland.
 Stone, D. C., San Francisco.
 Stone, Flora M., Alamo.
 Stone, Martha, San Francisco.
 Stone, Marion E., Oakland.
 Stone, Marion P., Grass Valley.
 Stone, Mrs. Marrietta L., San Francisco.
 Stone, Nettie M., Peach Tree.
 Stone, W. W., South San Francisco.
 Storrs, Mrs. H. M., East Oakland.
 Story, Lizzie, West Oakland.
 Story, Mary, West Oakland.
 Stout, G. H., Yankee Hill.
 Stout, Mrs. G. H., Yankee Hill.
 Stovall, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Stovall, Stella S., San Francisco.
 Stowell, P. M., San Francisco.
 Strange, Helen, Gilroy.
 Stratton, C. C., Mills Seminary.
 Stratton, James, Oakland.
 Stratton, Mrs. J. S., San Rafael.
 Strauch, V. F., Sacramento.
 Strauss, Ida R., San Francisco.
 Strine, J. H., Downey.
 Stringham, Jessie, Stockton.
 Strite, Mrs. Orpha, Auburn.
 Strite, S. H., Auburn.
 Strong, Mildred, San Diego.
 Stroud, Eva B., El Modena.
 Strout, Myra H., Pasadena.
 Strube, Carrie, Visalia.
 Struve, Christine, Salinas City.
 Stuart, Martha R., Haywards.
 Stuart, Mrs. M. E., San Jose.
 Sturges, D. B., San Bernardino.
 Sturges, Mrs. D. B., San Bernardino.
 Sturges, Mrs. H. F., San Francisco.
 Sturges, Selden, San Francisco.
 Sullivan, Annie M., San Francisco.
 Sullivan, D. J., Alameda.
 Sullivan, Lizzie, Hollister.
 Sullivan, Maggie A., San Diego.
 Sullivan, Mary, Merced.
 Sullivan, M. G., San Rafael.
 Sullivan, N. F., San Francisco.
 Sullivan, N. G., San Francisco.
 Sullivan, Nora M., San Francisco.
 Sullivan, Therese M., San Francisco.
 Summerfield, Alice, San Francisco.
 Summers, Belle C., Plymouth.
 Summers, Ora, East Oakland.
 Sumner, Henrietta, Oakland.
 Sundquist, Josie M., Vallejo.
 Suñol, Francis A., Suñol Glen.
 Supervielle, Florence, Sonora.
 Sutcliffe, Gertrude, San Francisco.
 Sutherland, Annie E., San Francisco.
 Sutherland, F. C., Oakland.
 Sutphen, Albert, Los Gatos.
 Swain, Orlando E., Antioch.
 Swain, William B., San Francisco.
 Swain, Mrs. W. B., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Swank, Ida M., Monterey.
 Swasey, Alice, Oakland.
 Sweatland, D., San Francisco.
 Sweeny, Cassie L., San Francisco.
 Sweeney, John David K., Red Bluff.
 Sweeney, Julia G., Vallejo.
 Sweeney, Minnie, Sacramento.
 Sweeney, F. E., Clinknerville.
 Sweetser, Mrs. L. F., San Francisco.
 Swett, John, San Francisco.
 Swett, Mrs. John, San Francisco.
 Swift, Lucetta, Ione.
 Swift, Mrs. M. H., Los Angeles.
 Sykes, Chas. H., San Francisco.
 Sykes, Jane, San Francisco.
 Sylvester, Mrs. A., Riverside.
 Taffe, Lawrence, San Francisco.
 Taft, Line L., Hopeton.
 Tait, A. J., West Oakland.
 Tait, Geo., Alameda.
 Talbott, Paul, Chualar.
 Tally, John A., Colfax.
 Talmage, Mrs. J., Riverside.
 Taney, Lucy R., Alameda.
 Tarpey, Winifred L., San Francisco.
 Tavener, Geo., Cosumnes.
 Taylor, Mrs. A. C., San Francisco.
 Taylor, Eva A., San Francisco.
 Taylor, Caleb S., jr., Maxwell.
 Taylor, Mrs. Henry R., Oakland.
 Taylor, Laura, Oakland.
 Taylor, Mamie C., San Francisco.
 Taylor, W. M., Oakland.
 Taylor, Will P., Paperville.
 Tebbetts, Chas. E., Pasadena.
 Tebbetts, Mrs. Chas. E., Pasadena.
 Teel, Mary L., Napa City.
 Templeton, Alice, Orland.
 Templeton, Carrie A., San Francisco.
 Templeton, Laura S., San Francisco.
 Templeton, Milo L., Oakland.
 Templeton, S. L., San Francisco.
 Tenney, A. D., Salinas.
 Teutschel, A. S., San Francisco.
 Tevis, Bessie, Los Angeles.
 Thom, Charles J., Haywards.
 Thom, M. S., San Francisco.
 Thomas, Ella, San Francisco.
 Thomas, J. R., Calpella.
 Thomas, Maggie, Napa City.
 Thomas, Sue L., Gilroy.
 Thomas, Mrs. T. W., Petaluma.
 Thomas, Phoebe A., Lincoln.
 Thomas, William D., Pittsburg.
 Thomas, Z., Gilroy.
 Thompson, Albert N., Arbuckle.
 Thompson, Arabella, Salinas.
 Thompson, Charlotte, San Francisco.
 Thompson, Ettie L., Oakland.
 Thompson, Gertrude E., San Francisco.
 Thompson, Helen M., San Francisco.
 Thompson, H. M., San Francisco.
 Thompson, Mrs. J. B., Rutherford.
 Thompson, Jessica B., San Jose.
 Thompson, J. N., Hollister.
 Thompson, M. A., Sacramento.
 Thompson, Maggie, San Francisco.
 Thompson, Mattie, Pescadero.
 Thompson, Nettie, Dixon.
 Thompson, Roberta A., San Francisco.
 Thompson, Sadie R., San Francisco.
 Thornton, A. M., San Francisco.
 Thornton, Maggie E., San Andreas.
 Thorp, Jennie L., West Oakland.
 Thoyer, Rose, San Francisco.
 Thrasher, Mrs. Wm. T., San Leandro.
 Thurber, Alfred, San Pablo.
 Thurber, Mrs. J. V., San Pablo.
 Thurber, Nellie B., Watsonville.
 Thurmand, G. E., Carpenteria.
 Thurton, S. E., San Francisco.
 Thurwachter, Mary E., Watsonville.
 Tibbey, H. L., Downieville.
 Tibbits, May L., Sutter Creek.
 Tidd, Elsie, San Lorenzo.
 Tiedemann, Dora W., Oakland.
 Tiernan, Mrs. A. E., San Francisco.
 Tieroff, Laura N., San Francisco.
 Tiffany, A. J., Nevada City.
 Tiffany, Mrs. L. D., Nevada City.
 Tillman, Henry, Napa City.
 Tilson, J. R., Vacaville.
 Tilton, Ella, San Mateo.
 Tilton, Etta M., San Mateo.
 Timmins, Anna C., San Francisco.
 Titus, Mary J., San Jose.
 Tobin, Isabelle, San Francisco.
 Tobin, Maggie, Vallejo.
 Todd, Mrs. Aurora H., San Diego.
 Todd, Mrs. E. G., Oakland.
 Todd, Nellie, Sacramento.
 Todd, Samuel H., San Diego.
 Tolman, Clara, Salinas City.
 Tolman, Jane C., Mills Seminary.
 Tolman, Lizzie M., Oakland.
 Tomlinson, A., San Francisco.
 Tompkins, Mrs. Cora, East Berkeley.
 Tompkins, Mrs. Mary M., San Francisco.
 Tompkins, Rose, San Francisco.
 Tonach, Mrs. E. P., Visalia.
 Tower, Helen E., Sacramento.
 Towle, C. B., Vallejo.
 Townsend, Mrs. Belle, Pasadena.
 Tracie, Mayme, Redding.
 Tracie, Mrs. M. W., Redding.
 Tracy, Chas., Sacramento.
 Tracy, Lucilia, Oakland.
 Trask, Alice M., Oakland.
 Trask, Stella G., Oakland.
 Traynor, Mary E., San Francisco.
 Treadwell, Henrietta, Tulare City.
 Treat, May B., Lamanda Park.
 Treat, Sarah B., San Francisco.
 Trick, Geo. W., West Oakland.
 Trick, Mrs. Geo. W., West Oakland.
 Trickey, Mrs. A. L., San Jose.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

ngham, Mattie, Suñal Glen.
 er, Nettie, East Oakland.
 Elizabeth, Nevada City.
 Wm., Nevada City.
 has. F., Alameda.
 , Mrs. M. H., Eulick.
 Mercie A., Woodland.
 Mrs. E. R., Oakland.
 Hannah Scott, Alameda.
 Annabel, Watsonville.
 Mary E., Livermore.
 Mattie B., Gilroy.
 g, H. LaV., Riverside.
 g, N. C., Riverside.
 onathan, San Francisco.
 . C., Oakland.
 Laura M., Martinez.
 Mrs. John, San Francisco.
 Mary W., Oakland.
 Minnie S., Nevada City.
 t, Mrs. E. M., San Francisco.
 ood, Maro F., Pasadena.
 Annie N., San Francisco.
 Rachel, San Francisco.
 Mamie V., San Francisco.
 ul, Oakland.
 . F., San Mateo.
 ie, L. W., Red Bluff.
 ie, Mary, San Francisco.
 ie, Mrs. L. W., Red Bluff.
 Louisa J., Eureka.
 mie, Josephine, Little River.
 n Bergh, Flora, San Francisco.
 n Burgh, Kate E., Oakland.
 n Burgh, Mrs. S. B., Oakland.
 gaw, Helen J., Oakland.
 r, Mary, San Buenaventura.
 rsten, Emma, San Jose.
 ton, John, San Francisco.
 rden, Mrs. A., San Simeon.
 elder, Mrs. Bertie, Sacramento.
 ter, A. C., Taison.
 len, Amanda, Grass Valley.
 raick, Mrs. Mary A., Gilroy.
 inbergh, Jennie R., Winters.
 inbergh, Joanna, Winters.
 ar, J. M., Hanford.
 ar, Mrs. J. M., Hanford.
 ck, Maria, San Francisco.
 M., San Francisco.
 Mrs. E. H. B., San Francisco.
 Mrs. Rosalia, San Rafael.
 ni, Carlo, San Francisco.
 rholz, Henry, Manchester.
 lanthe, Santa Cruz.
 elen M., San Francisco.
 , Carrie H., Oakland.
 C. C., Sacramento.
 ng, Dora, Stockton.
 . Bertha T., Alameda.
 arab, Pasadena.
 . M., Independence.
 Mrs. Ada, Oakland.

Wade, Helen M., Anaheim.
 Wade, Jennie A., Oakland.
 Wade, Lucy D., San Francisco.
 Wade, W., San Francisco.
 Wadham, Luman, San Francisco.
 Wadsworth, Mrs. A. R., Nevada City.
 Wadsworth, W. U., Sutter City.
 Wainwright, Lizzie H., San Francisco.
 Waiss, A. S., Inwood.
 Waite, Mrs. Frances V., Benicia.
 Wakefield, C. B., Placerville.
 Wakeman, Angy, East Oakland.
 Wakeman, S. D., Stockton.
 Walber, Kate H., May.
 Walbridge, Jeannie, Oakland.
 Walcott, Mabel, San Francisco.
 Walden, Mrs. A. C., Crow's Landing.
 Walker, Mrs. B. F., Fort Jones.
 Walker, Charles E., Fort Jones.
 Walker, Mrs. Charles E., Fort Jones.
 Walker, C. M., Napa.
 Walker, E. H., Biggs.
 Walker, F. J., Hamburgh.
 Walker, Fred., Chico.
 Walker, Mrs. Lucy A., Oakland.
 Walker, Mrs. M. H., San Francisco.
 Walker, Samuel L., San Francisco.
 Walker, Walter, Fort Jones.
 Wall, Gertrude E., San Francisco.
 Wall, James A., Salinas City.
 Wall, Mary P., Tustin City.
 Wallace, Emily, North Temescal.
 Wallace, Emma, Modesto.
 Wallace, Hamilton, Tulare.
 Wallace, J. T., Rio Vista.
 Wallace, Lute L., Modesto.
 Walsh, Chas. J., Gridley.
 Walsh, Maggie, San Jose.
 Walsh, M. T., San Francisco.
 Walsh, Nellie G., San Francisco.
 Walter, Mrs. Cynthia C. N., Oakland.
 Walter, H. F., Sutter Creek.
 Walton, Eva F., Compton.
 Ward, Fanny, Oakland.
 Ward, F. M., Los Angeles.
 Ward, Rose, Vacaville.
 Ward, S. E., San Francisco.
 Ward, W., Los Angeles.
 Wardall, Mable, Duarte.
 Wardall, Thomas, Duarte.
 Ware, A. G., San Francisco.
 Ware, Fannie, San Francisco.
 Warnecke, A., Orinda Park.
 Warner, Anna, Santa Barbara.
 Warnie, J. W., Colusa.
 Warren, Maggie, Chico.
 Warren, R. D., San Diego.
 Warring, Miss, San Jose.
 Washburn, Geo. E., San Francisco.
 Washburn, George, San Francisco.
 Washburn, Mrs. Lizzie B., Oakland.
 Washburn, Lucy M., San Jose.
 Washburn, Olive M., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA—CONTINUED.

- Washer, J. T., College City.
 Waterman, Mary A., San Francisco.
 Watkins, Emma P., San Jose.
 Watkins, Josie, Woodland.
 Watkins, Kate, Kirkwood.
 Walton, A. E., Oakland.
 Watson, Alex. G., San Diego.
 Watson, L. P., San Francisco.
 Watson, M. J., San Francisco.
 Watson, Mary J., Sacramento.
 Watts, Mrs. Elizabeth B., San Francisco.
 Way, Emma F., San Diego.
 Weaver, Carrie J., Traver.
 Weaver, Louisa, Glen Ellen.
 Weaver, Mrs. E. A., San Francisco.
 Webb, Holton, Lompoc.
 Webb, Mrs. Mary, Millville.
 Webb, Nellie, Sacramento.
 Weber, Julius, San Francisco.
 Webster, Calvin B., Fairfield.
 Webster, Gail, Fresno.
 Webster, George C., Chinese Camp.
 Webster, Harriet, Gilroy.
 Webster, Lizzie E., Redlands.
 Webster, R. H., San Francisco.
 Webster, Sadie, San Francisco.
 Weck, Bertie, San Francisco.
 Weckworth, A., Rio Vista.
 Weed, Alice, San Francisco.
 Weed, Ida B., San Francisco.
 Weed, Jennie M., San Francisco.
 Weed, Josephine H., San Francisco.
 Weeks, Annie C., Sacramento.
 Weeks, Annie M., Petaluma.
 Weeks, C. D., Oakland.
 Weeks, George W., Orange.
 Weeks, Jane M., Martinez.
 Weeks, M. L., Willetts.
 Weeks, Oscar D., Stockton.
 Wehner, A. L., San Jose.
 Weinman, Louis, San Francisco.
 Weinshank, Mrs. R., Los Angeles.
 Weinshank, Regina, Los Angeles.
 Welch, Electa, Cohasset.
 Welch, Mary F., San Pablo.
 Welden, Maggie L., Oroville.
 Welling, Emma, Willows.
 Wells, Annie L., Oakland.
 Wells, G. S., San Jose.
 Wells, Mrs. L. H., St. Helena.
 Wells, Nellie, Napa City.
 Wells, T. W., Santa Anna.
 Well, W. I., Lotus.
 Welsh, Eliza G., Redding.
 Welton, Lillie, Berkeley.
 Welton, V., Berkeley.
 Wentworth, J. P. H., San Francisco.
 Wentworth, M. A., San Francisco.
 Werner, Erna, Lakeport.
 Wertz, K. M., Oakland.
 West, C. M., Elliot.
 West, Maude, Lakeport.
 West, M. B., San Francisco.
 Westbay, Levenie M., Stockton.
 Westbay, W. W., Merced.
 Westerman, P. B., Covelo.
 Westfall, Lillian E., Camp Badger.
 Westfall, Mary J., Tulare.
 Westover, Mrs. Mary L., Woodland.
 Wetting, Anna, San Francisco.
 Wharff, F. L., San Francisco.
 Whatmore, Amy, San Diego.
 Wheaton, Jennie P., Oakland.
 Wheeler, Ella, Plymouth.
 Wheeler, Mary L., Oakland.
 Wheelock, Dorcas, Santa Barbara.
 Whelan, Maggie L., San Leandro.
 Whipple, F. A., Kilesillah.
 Whipple, Nathan T., Oakland.
 Whirlon, H. E., Berkeley.
 Whitcomb, Jennie, Newbury Park.
 White, Chas. M., San Benito.
 White, G. A., Sacramento.
 White, Hattie, San Francisco.
 White, Lillie, San Francisco.
 White, L. E., East Oakland.
 White, Lucy A., Nevada City.
 White, Mary E., Stockton.
 White, Mrs. M. A., Los Angeles.
 White, Nellie M., Del Monte.
 White, Richard, Chico.
 White, Silas A., San Francisco.
 White, T. B., San Francisco.
 White, Mrs. T. C., Fresno.
 White, Winifred, San Francisco.
 Whitman, W. C., Oakland.
 Whitmore, Wm. E., Lower Lake.
 Whittaker, John R., Vallejo.
 Whittier, Merril, Mooretown.
 Wible, A. A., Table Bluff.
 Wible, Laura E., Crescent City.
 Wickham, Nellie, Calistoga.
 Wickman, Emma, San Francisco.
 Wickson, E. J., Berkeley.
 Wideman, James, San Francisco.
 Wiethoff, Louisa A., Camanche.
 Wiggin, Kate D., San Francisco.
 Wiggin, Maude H., Mountain Ranch.
 Wight, Walter S., San Jose.
 Wightman, H., Booneville.
 Wilber, E. A., Oakland.
 Wilbur, Addie E., Yuba City.
 Wilbur, J. H., Woodland.
 Wilcox, Nellie, Tustin.
 Wilcox, Nelson, Sacramento.
 Wilhelm, Mrs. Sophia, Grass Valley.
 Wilkins, Mrs. Kate, Wheatland.
 Wilkinson, Chas. T., Berkeley.
 Wilkinson, Warring, Berkeley.
 Wilkon, J. W., Oakland.
 Willey, S. H., Benicia.
 Willits, Dody, Auburn.
 Williams, A. M., Elk Grove.
 Williams, C. A., Red Bluff.
 Williams, Cecilia A., Fresno City.
 Williams, Elvie B., Los Angeles.

CALIFORNIA — CONTINUED.

- ns, Mrs. H. F., San Francisco.
 ns, J. C., Elk Creek.
 ns, Jeanette W., Oakland.
 ns, Kate, San Francisco.
 ns, Lillian, Santa Paula.
 ns, Louise A., Los Angeles.
 ns, Mattie L., Eureka.
 ns, Mrs. J. E., Willow.
 ns, Mrs. M. C., San Francisco.
 ns, Mrs. H. F., San Francisco.
 ns, R., Pasadena.
 ns, Richard D., Pleasanton.
 ns, Sara C., French Corral.
 nson, Ethel, San Francisco.
 nson, Jessie, San Jose.
 nson, John M., San Francisco.
 nson, Louise, Los Angeles.
 n; K. E., San Francisco.
 Oscar J., Oakland.
 Virginia, Cathay.
 , Catherine E., San Francisco.
 , David A., Cherokee.
 , Mrs. E. A., San Francisco.
 , Mrs. Eliza, Clarksville.
 , Emily H., Placerville.
 , Emma, Sonoma.
 , George, Florin.
 , Gertrude H., Fresno City.
 , J. K., San Francisco.
 , John L., Colusa.
 , Mrs. J. L., Colusa.
 , Lucy A., Fresno City.
 , Mary H., Green Valley.
 , Mary J., Cohasset.
 , May L., Fort Jones.
 , Mattie H., Los Angeles.
 , Olive, Winters.
 , S. M., San Francisco.
 , William R., Soquel.
 , W. W., Belmont.
 Mrs. T. H., San Francisco.
 ester, Sarah H., Santa Barbara.
 A. T., San Francisco.
 N. M., San Diego.
 s, Mattie, Red Bluff.
 ladie E., Suisun.
 an, M., San Francisco.
 ell, Emma L., Oakland.
 s, Milton, San Miguel.
 , Minnie, Jamestown.
 myer, Clara K., Martinez.
 t, E. J., San Francisco.
 Annie, San Francisco.
 B. F., San Francisco.
 Alice M., San Francisco.
 L., San Francisco.
 Oona, Camulos.
 Alice B., Oakland.
 Anna M., San Francisco.
 Anna R., Collinsville.
 Annie L., Campbell.
 Charles, Danville.
 E. Alfaretta, Riverside.
 Wood, Fred B., San Francisco.
 Wood, Isabella, San Francisco.
 Wood, Job, jr., Salinas City.
 Wood, Leander S., Campbell.
 Wood, Mattie F., San Francisco.
 Wood, Minnie, Modesto.
 Wood, M. M., San Francisco.
 Wood, Mrs. A. K., Oakland.
 Wood, Mrs. E. A., San Francisco.
 Wood, Mrs. N. A., San Francisco.
 Woodland, Mrs. Isabel C., San Francisco.
 Woodman, Charles A., San Leandro.
 Woodman, Mrs. J. M., Chico.
 Woods, Eva M., Pescadero.
 Woods, Mary, Sacramento.
 Woods, Theo., Santa Barbara.
 Woods, Virna, Sacramento.
 Woodward, Jennie, East Portland.
 Woodward, N. Z., Merced.
 Woodworth, C. W., Petaluma.
 Woodworth, Mrs. Delia, Stony Point.
 Woodworth, Ella, Petaluma.
 Woodworth, W. D., Yuba City.
 Wooll, Hattie L., San Francisco.
 Woolsey, Edith, Stockton.
 Wooster, Carrie C., San Diego.
 Wooster, M. Helen, Los Angeles.
 Worcester, E. E., San Jose.
 Worcester, H. B., San Jose.
 Work, Hattie L., East Oakland.
 Worth, Mrs. F., San Francisco.
 Worth, Mrs. W. W., San Francisco.
 Wright, Mrs. Ada E., San Francisco.
 Wright, Alice, Red Bluff.
 Wright, Annie, Duarte.
 Wright, A. P., San Francisco.
 Wright, Estella, Merced.
 Wright, Isaac, Oakland.
 Wright, John A., Ocean View.
 Wright, Mary L., Lodi.
 Wright, Mattie, Colusa.
 Wright, Sarah G., Crescent City.
 Wright, William H., Compton.
 Wulffing, Frances, San Francisco.
 Wyckoff, Nellie A., Oakland.
 Wyllie, Hattie Louise, San Jose.
 Wynne, Mary, Vallejo.
 Wythe, Margaret, Oakland.
 Yager, Myron, Red Bluff.
 Yager, Mrs. M., Red Bluff.
 Yandell, B. H., Bishop Creek.
 Yaney, Elma K., Bishop Creek.
 Yates, A. L., Hill's Ferry.
 Yates, Henry, Meridian.
 Yoeman, Libby E., San Francisco.
 York, Annie M., Healdsburg.
 York, Effie E., Oakland.
 York, Robert, San Bernardino.
 Young, Alice, San Diego.
 Young, A. J., Danville.
 Young, Edna H., Santa Cruz.
 Young, Emma Sarvis, Eureka.
 Young, H. M., San Francisco.

CALIFORNIA — CONCLUDED.

Young, Jno. W., Santa Barbara.	Zabriskie, Emily Tallulah, San Francisco.
Young, Mrs. Mary A., Danville.	Zevegbruch, Agnes, San Francisco.
Young, M. Frances, Laurel.	Zimmerman, B., San Francisco.
Young, Thos. L., Hopland.	Zumwalt, Clara S., Anderson.
Young, Vernelia D., Bangor.	Zumwalt, Lillie, San Francisco.
Youngman, Amanda M., East Oakland.	Ziveyarnch, Edith, San Francisco.

COLORADO.

Adams, Alice M., Leadville.	Jackson, J. P., Colorado City.
Alderman, Sara A., Denver.	Jackson, W. E., Breckinridge.
Arbogast, B. A., Breckinridge.	Jones, Robert S., Steamboat Springs.
Atkinson, Mrs. Clara C., Denver.	Knapp, W. E., Denver.
Atkinson, M. E., Denver.	Law, Theodora, Greeley.
Ayers, Helen McG., Denver.	Lindsey, W. A., Highland.
Ayers, Henrietta B., Denver.	Lipscomb, Thos. W., Denver.
Baker, Jas. H., Denver.	Lipscomb, Mrs. Thos. W., Denver.
Baker, N. A., Denver.	Long, Geo. B., Denver.
Baker, Mrs. N. A., Denver.	McInhill, B., Denver.
Banon, M. I., Durango.	McLeod, Kate, Central City.
Bassett, Mary L., Greeley.	Meagus, Mrs. Mary, Denver.
Beardsley, Clara, Denver.	Miles, Mrs. Cornelia, Denver.
Beggs, R. H., Denver.	Miles, Emily, Denver.
Bell, Mary R., Berthoud.	Miller, Eva, Denver.
Bond, N. J., Denver.	Miller, Oma, Denver.
Breckenridge, S. L., Sterling.	Minor, M. B., Cañon City.
Brown, Elizabeth, Denver.	Mitchell, Alice, Denver.
Brown, Mrs. Elizabeth, Denver.	Mitchell, Emma, Denver.
Brown, Mrs. Kate E., Denver.	Mitchell, Emma B., Denver.
Carter, Cora L., Denver.	Moultly, Adele C., Leadville.
Chamberlain, E. L., Salida.	Munn, Mrs. Ira Y., Ouray.
Chittenden, Mrs. F., Denver.	Owen, Isis, Buena Vista.
Clark, Mattie, Denver.	Palmer, Emma J., Denver.
Coleman, Helen A., Denver.	Parsons, C. C., Leadville.
Coney, Clara J., Denver.	Parsons, Mrs. C. C., Leadville.
Cornell, L. S., Denver.	Person, G. S., Greeley.
Cornell, Mrs. L. S., Denver.	Reid, Agnes, Denver.
Crater, Mary, Denver.	Reid, Mrs. Wm., Denver.
Davies, B., Denver.	Ritchie, C. M., Loveland.
Davies, Mrs. B., Denver.	Ryan, Thos., Denver.
Day, Jessie, Denver.	Salmon, F. G., Aspen.
Dennison, Ida M., Denver.	Sater, Lena I., Pueblo.
Dodge, Daisy, Denver.	Schumer, Mrs. S., Denver.
Dodge, Mrs. M. M., Denver.	Scott, Mrs. L. E. R., Denver.
Dunkler, Mary E., Denver.	Shannon, Kate F., Denver.
Fall, D. W., Breckinridge.	Shattuck, Jos. C., Denver.
Farnsworth, May, Denver.	Singletary, Dora, Denver.
Field, Clara E., Denver.	Smith, Alice M., Denver.
Fisk, A. C., Denver.	Steinhauer, Bertha, Denver.
Fisk, Mrs. A. C., Denver.	Steinhauer, Mrs. B., Denver.
Fredburg, Jacob, Denver.	Sylvester, Myrtie, Denver.
Green, Mrs. Anna M., Denver.	Sylvester, Rena, Denver.
Griggs, Herbert, Denver.	Taylor, Bertha B., Denver.
Griggs, Mrs. Herbert, Denver.	Tidball, Jennie F., Denver.
Guibor, Alice, Denver.	Van Sickle, James H., Denver.
Guibor, Mrs. Louise, Denver.	Watkins, Cassie, Denver.
Harris, Susan J., Colorado Springs.	Wegener, H. F., Denver.
Hayward, Mrs. Emily A., Denver.	Wegener, Mrs. H. F., Denver.
Heaton, M. C., Denver.	Westley, Chas., Denver.
Henderson, Fanny, Westcliffe.	Wilson, Stella H., Denver.
Hogeland, Clara, Greeley.	Wright, Mary S., Denver.
Houghan, Mrs. Frona R., Denver.	Wright, Willis M., Denver.
Ingram, Mrs. E., Denver.	Wurtz, Esther M., Denver.
Ingraham, Mrs. Hattie E., Denver.	

CONNECTICUT.

ws, Mrs. C. E., Meriden.
 ws, Sallie J., Meriden.
 r, R. C., Burrville.
 r, Mrs. R. C., Burrville.
 s, Jennie E., New Britain.
 C. M., New Haven.
 i, Mrs. Sarah H., Stamford.
 , Cora E., Danielsonville.
 and, Eliza W., West Winsted.
 er, Mrs. H. M., New Haven.
 h, Mrs. Isaac, Bridgeport.
 h, Minnie G., Bridgeport.
 on, A. C., Middlefield.
 as, Edward, Middletown.
 leo. L., New Haven.
 t, Mrs. C., Bridgeport.
 ll, Oscar, Hartford.
 ver, Bessie B., Bridgeport.
 m, J. L., Bridgeport.
 n, Mrs. J. L., Bridgeport.
 gs, Mary E., West Winsted.
 Geo. B., New Haven.
 , J. S., New Haven.
 Georgiana E., Bridgeport.

Lathrop, Mrs. Rosa M., Black Rock.
 Lester, Sarah J., Woodstock.
 Linke, Emil F., Hartford.
 Linke, Wm. L., Hartford.
 Medbury, Alice, Meriden.
 Merrill, Elmer T., Middletown.
 Morris, Paul, Bridgeport.
 Morse, N. D., Donaldsonville.
 Müller, Mary St. L., Hartford.
 Müller, Mrs. Wm., Hartford.
 Newell, Flora J., Meriden.
 Penfield, Carrie E., Black Rock.
 Perry, Esther C., Hartford.
 Roy, Wm., Norwich.
 Smith, Sarah J., Hartford.
 Stetson, A. L., Meriden.
 Stewart, Fannie, Portland.
 Titus, Mrs. S. W., New Haven.
 Todd, Hettie A., Stamford.
 Twitchell, W. I., Hartford.
 Wakeman, Alfred J., Green's Farms.
 Walker, Mary A., Bridgeport.
 Whitcome, Susie L., Brookfield Center.
 Wright, Francis J., West Winsted.

DAKOTA.

ree, Mary E., Ellendale.
 h, C. E., Parker.
 rson, Minnie, Fort Stevenson.
 land, Geo. A., Scotland.

Parish, Louise, Huron.
 Sprague, G. S., Grand Forks.
 Sprague, Homer B., Grand Forks.
 Sprague, Mrs. Homer B., Grand Forks.

DELAWARE.

ter, J. L., Wilmington.
 s, A. C., Wilmington.

Morris, W. H., Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

, E., jr., Washington.
 t, Emma E., Washington.
 er, Sarah E., Washington.
 Ida M., Washington.
 , Helen, Washington.
 tle, Adelia, Washington.
 tle, Lucy S., Washington.
 tle, Mary E., Washington.
 tle, M. H., Washington.
 ld, T., Washington.
 s, M. E., Washington.
 y, Susanna G., Washington.
 s, Jennie, Washington.
 ton, W. T., Washington.
 , Susan S., Washington.
 a, Charlotte, Washington.

McLean, N. E. L., Washington.
 McNantz, M. Alice, Washington.
 McNantz, Sallie B., Washington.
 Nichols, Helen G., Washington.
 Nichols, Lizzie S., Washington.
 Parsons, Warren, Washington.
 Pollack, Loue, Washington.
 Pollack, Mrs. Louise, Washington.
 Ravenburg, M. Grace, Washington.
 Richards, Z., Washington.
 Selder, M., Washington.
 Smith, C. B., Washington.
 Stockett, J. M., Washington.
 Stockett, M. E., Washington.
 Taylor, A. R., Washington.
 Wright, H. L., Washington.

GEORGIA.

s. J. E., Cusseta.
 ey, Sterling G., Augusta.
 son, K. G., Milledgeville.
 y. E. C., Atlanta.
 r, J. H., Jeffersonville.
 eton, Mrs. W. M., Atlanta.
 eton, W. M., Atlanta.
 ler, E. A. M., Savannah.

Schroder, Mrs. E. A. M., Savannah.
 Seobie, E. B., Macon.
 Stewart, Baylor, Atlanta.
 Thigpen, W. R., Savannah.
 Turner, Laura, Atlanta.
 Vason, A. C., Augusta.
 Vason, Rebie, Augusta.
 Weeks, C. H., Talboton.

IDAHO.

Brown, John G., Pocatello.
 Caldwell, Bertha T., Malad City.
 Caldwell, Frances A., Boise City.
 Callwell, F. B., Boise City.
 Eccleston, Edw., Silver City.
 Fredericks, Eva C., Malad City.

Frost, Amelia J., Ross Fork.
 Howard, Wm., Vellene.
 Osborn, Geo. M., Ketchum.
 Van Wormer, Ada, Albion.
 Van Wormer, Eva E., Pocatello.
 Van Wormer, Sara T., Ketchum.

ILLINOIS.

Adams, Carrie G., Chicago.
 Adams, Mary F., Naperville.
 Alderson, Victor C., Englewood.
 Alderson, Mrs. V. C., Englewood.
 Alexander, Mrs. H. C., Chicago.
 Anderson, M. C., Bloomington.
 Averill, Carrie L., Chicago.
 Baker, Julia E., Chicago.
 Barker, L. A., Quincy.
 Bartee, Mrs. R., Chicago.
 Bayley, M. Olive, Carmi.
 Beck, L. E., Chicago.
 Belfield, Henry H., Chicago.
 Bell, May, Chicago.
 Bennett, R. P., La Grange.
 Benson, F. H., Fulton.
 Bevans, Homer, Englewood.
 Bigelow, M. S., Springfield.
 Block, L. J., Chicago.
 Booker, R. B., Augusta.
 Bracken, Frances M., Chicago.
 Brayton, Wm. B., Blue Island.
 Brown, John H., Quincy.
 Brown, Mrs. Geo. E., Bloomington.
 Brown, Mrs. J. H., Quincy.
 Brua, H. W., Belleville.
 Buechel, Mrs. B., Chicago.
 Buechel, Caroline, Chicago.
 Büttner, Marie, Godfrey.
 Campbell, Ella, Carmi.
 Cannon, Abbie A., Chicago.
 Carrier, Mrs. C. R., Chicago.
 Casebeer, J. F., Geneseo.
 Champlin, A. H., Englewood.
 Charles, Oscar, Chicago.
 Charles, Mrs. Oscar, Chicago.
 Charles, Thos., Chicago.
 Cherry, Anna, Chicago.
 Churchill, Geo., Galesburg.
 Cobb, Mrs. Oscar, Chicago.
 Connell, W. J., Piper City.
 Converse, Edmond D., Chicago.
 Cook, John W., Normal.
 Cooke, A. F., Rock Island.
 Cooke, Martha A., Rock Island.
 Cooper, Annie, Chicago.
 Coulter, C. E., Freeport.
 Coulter, Mrs. G., Freeport.
 Crellin, Ella, Joliet.
 Davies, H. C., Chicago.
 Dean, M. H., Chicago.
 De Camp, H. C., Chicago.
 De Camp, Mrs. H. C., Chicago.
 Del Banco, Bessie, Chicago.

Del Banco, Miriam, Chicago.
 Dimon, Lydia A., Chicago.
 Dynan, Hattie, Crawford.
 Dexter, L. J., Bloomington.
 Dodge, Medora E., Chicago.
 Dodge, M. Luella, Chicago.
 Dodson, Mabel, Hyde Park.
 Dodson, Maud, Hyde Park.
 Dodson, N. B., Hyde Park.
 Dougherty, T. E., Chicago.
 Dryer, Mrs. P. K., Chicago.
 Dunlap, Hettie S., Austin.
 Eastman, Bessie, Rockford.
 Eckstorm, Jennie K., Lake View.
 Eckstorm, Pauline O., Lake View.
 Ellis, Jno. C., Chicago.
 Enright, Helen, Chicago.
 Evans, Mary, Belleville.
 Fagon, Mary L., Englewood.
 Field, A. A., Chicago.
 Finch, Annah B., Lockport.
 Firebaugh, Joseph, Robinson.
 Fiske, Mrs. Libby E., Chicago.
 Flanagan, A., Chicago.
 Forkin, M. A., South Chicago.
 Foster, L. M., Poplar Grove.
 Foster, Mrs. L. M., Poplar Grove.
 Frank, Monroe, Chicago.
 Geer, David S., Chicago.
 Gilbert, May, Geneseo.
 Glenn, Annie J., Chicago.
 Goodrich, H., Minonk.
 Graham, Bessie, Briggsville.
 Graham, Carrie L., Englewood.
 Haight, R. A., Alton.
 Haire, Mrs. Mary R., Hyde Park.
 Hales, B. F., Chicago.
 Harmon, C. S., Chicago.
 Hartmann, Mary, Normal.
 Hawkins, Mrs. V. M., Galesburg.
 Henry, Lucille E., Chicago.
 Hewett, Mrs. E. C., Normal.
 Hoblit, Emma, Lincoln.
 Hoblit, Frank, Lincoln.
 Hoblit, Mary E., Lincoln.
 Hoblit, Millie A., Lincoln.
 Holden, F. G., Chicago.
 Huckins, Mrs. M., Hamilton.
 Huestis, Mrs. George, Chicago.
 Hughes, C. F., Chicago.
 Hunter, S. C., Englewood.
 Hyams, I., Chicago.
 Hyde, James F., Lincoln.
 Irvinski, Edward, Chicago.

ILLINOIS—CONCLUDED.

is, Wm., Mendota.
 on, Jno. A., Norwood Park.
 on, R. B., Morrison.
 on, Mrs. R. B., Morrison.
 ton, Flora, Peoria.
 ton, Maggie, Peoria.
 Emma F., Springfield.
 Mary E., Chicago.
 n, C. H., Quincy.
 ell, Belle, Elkhville.
 el, H. M., Belleville.
 Albert G., Chicago.
 Carrie N., Naperville.
 Luella V., Chicago.
 nore, Elizabeth, Edwardsville.
 , Jennie, Colehour.
 rs, H. W., Nokomis.
 , Della, Chicago.
 , Kate, Chicago.
 illan, Mrs. H., Chicago.
 illan, Jennie, Chicago.
 ey, Hannah I., Quincy.
 , Mary E., Chicago.
 s, Mrs. Mary P., Evanston.
 th, Belle, Chicago.
 ichlan, W. H., Ravenswood.
 A. B., Chicago.
 Mrs. A. B., Chicago.
 J. E., Chicago.
 , A. T., Chicago.
 M. M., Chicago.
 G. F., Edwardsville.
 Edna, Peoria.
 Mrs. M., Peoria.
 , Ellen S., Elburn.
 , O. M., Chicago.
 a, Elsie, Chicago.
 r, Al. G., Englewood.
 ngale, A. F., Lakeview.
 ngale, Mrs. A. F., Lakeview.
 ngale, Harry T., Lakeview.
 g, S. H., Wheaton.
 Grace, Chicago.
 J. M., Chicago.
 Mrs. J. M., Chicago.
 , Julia H., Leaf River.
 , Louis, Chicago.
 Edwin H., Shelbyville.
 , Isaac A., Galesburg.
 , John E., South Chicago.
 son, D. B., Carbondale.
 son, Ella, Chicago.
 son, Mrs. Jane, Chicago.
 son, Mary, Chicago.
 ly, S. H., Champaign.
 n, M. C., Godfrey.
 l, Flora, Normal.

Perkins, H. S., Chicago.
 Pike, Joshua, Jerseyville.
 Pike, Mrs. Nora B., Jerseyville.
 Pomeroy, Agnes, Ohio.
 Poston, Mary D., Springfield.
 Pratt, W. A., Mt. Carroll.
 Price, G. A., Chicago.
 Rabb, R. J., Chicago.
 Rankin, L., Bloomington.
 Rice, Helen A., Englewood.
 Rice, Isaac, Mt. Morris.
 Robinson, Adelia, Chicago.
 Ross, M. B., Lincoln.
 Savage, M., Chicago.
 Savage, M. M., Englewood.
 Scoville, E., Oak Park.
 Schiffer, Antoinette, Chicago.
 Shaner, Ella V., Mt. Carroll.
 Sisson, M. S., Galesburg.
 Slosson, Sara, Chicago.
 Smith, Grace T., Chicago.
 Smyth, W. S., Chicago.
 Standish, J. V. N., Galesburg.
 Standish, Mrs. J. V. N., Galesburg.
 Steele, C. M., Galesburg.
 Stimpson, Mrs. L. A., Chicago.
 Swigert, Chas. P., Springfield.
 Tansill, R. W., Chicago.
 Tansill, Mrs. R. W., Chicago.
 Tansill, R. W., jr., Chicago.
 Tape, Elizabeth, Chicago.
 Thomas, L. A., La Salle.
 Thompson, Etta V., Payson.
 Tremain, Frank E., Chicago.
 Troendle, Lina, Chicago.
 Tubbs, Elvira, Galesburg.
 Tuttle, T. D., Atlanta.
 Twinbaugh, Adda, Mt. Carroll.
 Ulrich, Nicholas, Peoria.
 Van Liew, C. C., Bensenville.
 Ward, E. A., Englewood.
 Watson, C. L., Peoria.
 Webb, Mrs. E., Chicago.
 Webb, Genevieve, Hickory.
 Webb, Jonie, Hickory.
 Wheaton, J. C., Wheaton.
 Whitcomb, Carrie B., Chicago.
 Whitmore, Eva B., Chicago.
 Wilder, Mrs. M. L., Chicago.
 Wilkinson, J. J., Lovington.
 Willis, Lilly J., Chicago.
 Wilson, Wash., Normal.
 Winchell, Ann E., Norwood Park.
 Winchell, Harriet N., Chicago.
 Yakeloy, Harriet F., Downer's Grove.
 Yates, Frances L., Chicago.
 Young, J. P., Blue Island.

INDIANA.

leo. P., Indianapolis.
 Mrs. G. C., Indianapolis.
 annie E., Terre Haute.

Wetherow, Julia, Evansville.
 Wagon, Cordelia, Highland.
 Brown, May B., Indianapolis.

IOWA—CONCLUDED.

, Mary S., Waterloo.
 d, Myrtie A., Stuart.
 Mrs. R. H., Tama.
 an, P. W., Red Oak.
 y, Mary, Des Moines.
 Mrs. Margaret M., Mt. Vernon.
 Vm. F., Mt. Vernon.
 , H. D., Charles City.
 k, Ella, El Kader.
 D. W., Washington.
 ore, Emma, Cedar Rapids.
 ore, Ida E., Cedar Rapids.
 , Margaret, Dubuque.
 Lizzie, Bedford.
 ws, Elizabeth K., Des Moines.
 e, T. H., Iowa City.
 and, Ada A., Des Moines.
 and, Mary E., Des Moines.
 , H. D., Tama.
 l, M. F., Des Moines.
 . Emma D., Dubuque.
 7, Mrs. M. M., Des Moines.
 , Belle, Tabor.
 , Mrs. E. B., Tabor.
 F. A., Dubuque.
 , G. M., Macedonia.
 Frederick W., Dubuque.
 G. D., Centerville.

Ramsdell, Cora, Cedar Rapids.
 Reed, Hattie, Cedar Rapids.
 Rigby, Mrs. J. H., Lyons.
 Robertson, P. S., Cedar Rapids.
 Rogers, C. P., Marshalltown.
 Rogers, May, Dubuque.
 Ruggles, J. W., Fayette.
 Saunderson, R. G., Burlington.
 Sawyer, N., Ottumwa.
 Shudidant, J. M., Centerville.
 Shorthill, S. E., Marshalltown.
 Shultz, Lizzie C., Marshalltown.
 Smith, Belle S., Dubuque.
 Smith, Josephine, Des Moines.
 Smith, Mrs. F. E., Charles City.
 Sperbeck, Mrs. E. E., Norway.
 Sperbeck, Flora, Norway.
 Sperry, Mrs. J. M., Sperry.
 Sperry, B. M., Sperry.
 Stover, Fannie, Newton.
 Stratton, F. E., Davenport.
 Thompson, Sarah E., Cedar Rapids.
 Titus, Cynthia C., Cedar Rapids.
 White, Mrs. Wm., Kelly.
 Wilson, S. L., Littleton.
 Winegar, Myrtie J., Moorhead.
 Wiswell, E. A., Northwood.
 Wright, L., Knoxville.

KANSAS.

J. D., Wakeeney.
 , L. E., Beloit.
 on, M. E., Topeka.
 1, Evelyn B., Oswego.
 gnes J., Bartlett.
 , Mrs. D., North Topeka.
 , Jennie V., Salina.
 , Mrs. R. O., Salina.
 Geneva, Ottawa.
 , Emma B., Valley Falls.
 O., Fort Scott.
 Mrs. D., Fort Scott.
 J. N., Colby.
 lyke, J. R., Bunker Hill.
 lyke, Mrs. M. A., Bunker Hill.
 no. M., Topeka.
 lannie, Topeka.
 Duncan, Highland.
 Allie, Cawker City.
 ne, G., Manhattan.
 , J. C., Topeka.
 , Mrs. J. C., Topeka.
 ell, Thomas P., Howard.
 l, J. A., Lawrence.
 l, J. H., Lawrence.
 l, Mrs. J. H., Lawrence.
 t, W. H., Ellsworth.
 Mrs. Martha M., Fort Scott.
 ion, Mrs. Mary E., Wichita.
 ion, Chas. T., Wichita.
 arlain, Maud, Topeka.
 er, M., Wichita.

Chapman, Mrs. Mada, Fort Scott.
 Couch, Birdie, Fort Scott.
 Cowell, Flora J., Paola.
 Cowell, Lotta, Paola.
 Cruikshank, R., Emporia.
 Cunningham, Mrs. P. T., El Dorado.
 Dana, Fenella, Madison.
 De Talente, Tilla, Brainard.
 Dickerson, A. O., Hiawatha.
 Doom, J., Oberland.
 Doom, Mrs. J., Oberland.
 Elliott, J. H., Mankato.
 Farmer, J. P., Powhatan.
 Ferguson, Jno. W., Kansas City.
 Ferguson, Mrs. Jno. W., Kansas City.
 Ferguson, Sarah, Kansas City.
 Fitzpatrick, Frank A., Leavenworth.
 Freed, J. K., Hiawatha.
 Fulcher, A., North Topeka.
 Grandle, H. M., Monmouth.
 Greer, John, Topeka.
 Greer, E. W., Topeka.
 Greer, Lark, Topeka.
 Hall, J. W., Topeka.
 Hibben, Mrs. E. A., Emporia.
 Hibben, Jennie, Emporia.
 Hibben, Mamie, Emporia.
 Hobbs, A. I., Wichita.
 Hobbs, Mrs. A. I., Wichita.
 Hobbs, Vesta, Wichita.
 Hodgden, Hattie D., Ellsworth.
 Horner, Hattie L., El Dorado.

KANSAS—CONCLUDED.

Humfreville, D. W., Waterville.
 Humfreville, Mrs. D. W., Waterville.
 Ivans, W. R., Sterling.
 Jack, Ruth, Ellsworth.
 Jones, Myrtle, Emporia.
 Johnson, J. P., Highland.
 Johnson, Mrs. J. P., Highland.
 Kelly, D. S., Emporia.
 Kennedy, Jennie, Meadow Brook.
 Kuhlemann, Emilie, Emporia.
 Lakin, Alice, Emporia.
 Lakin, Jimmie, Emporia.
 Larimer, H. G., Topeka.
 Loy, Anna, Eureka.
 Luirs, Dilla, Clyde.
 Merriam, A., Topeka.
 McDougall, Kate, Cedar Junction.
 McHenry, M., Chanute.
 McKune, Celra H., Woodston.
 McMichael, H. S., Wichita.
 Minx, Lou. A., Lincoln.
 Mitchell, Maggie S., North Topeka.
 Morriss, Effie M., Emporia.
 Overstreet, Alice, Wichita.
 Paulson, W. A., Lincoln.
 Peck, W. J., Kinsley.
 Peckham, Mrs. S., Wichita.
 Price, Mrs. M. C., Topeka.
 Roberts, Alfred, Emporia.
 Sabin, Mary, Topeka.

Sawyer, J. K., Wichita.
 Sawyer, Mrs. J. K., Wichita.
 Scott, Phœbe, Topeka.
 Seamans, C. H., Kinsley.
 Shaw, May, Topeka.
 Spencer, F. W., Cottonwood Falls.
 Spencer, Martha P., Emporia.
 Stowe, James R., Wichita.
 Stow, Minnie A., Marion.
 Todd, S. B., Sterling.
 Thompson, N. B., Waterville.
 Thompson, Mrs. N. B., Waterville.
 Thompson, Master J. W., Waterville.
 Troutman, Viola A., North Topeka.
 Vorner, Lon, Lyndon.
 Wallace, Jessie B., Stafford.
 Ware, J. H., Lincoln.
 Wasson, W. H., Pratt.
 Waters, W. G., Topeka.
 Weeks, Daniel, Emporia.
 Weller, Jessie, Enterprise.
 Wheeler, H., Lawrence.
 Williams, Lilly M., Dodge City.
 Wilkinson, J. N., Emporia.
 Wilkinson, Mrs. Nellie, Emporia.
 Wilson, Selina, Lawrence.
 Winterbottom, Abbie, Waterville.
 Witt, Minnie, Topeka.
 Woods, M. A., Topeka.
 Worsley, Thomas, Norwich.

KENTUCKY.

Bartholomew, Mrs. S. A., Louisville.
 Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville.
 Brindley, William, Newport.
 Bloomer, Margaret A., Elkton.
 Butler, Amelia P., Lexington.
 Cassidy, Laura A., Ludlow.
 Chalfant, Cornelia, Louisville.
 Clarke, Jennie, Louisville.
 Dreier, William, Louisville.
 Foxworthy, Alice, Mt. Carmel.
 Hibbett, C. W., Louisville.

Lester, Jennie E., Berea.
 Miller, Eulie, Louisville.
 Murphy, Sallie C., Louisville.
 Outen, J. T., Millsbury.
 Priest, Ruth, Henderson.
 Ripperdon, M. A., Hiawatha College.
 Smith, M., Newport.
 Steele, S. E., Henderson.
 Swoboda, Dora, Louisville.
 Thum, Adrienne, Louisville.
 Williams, N. A., Owensboro.

LOUISIANA.

Beers, M. J., New Orleans.
 Hansell, M. I., New Orleans.
 Huling, O. W., New Orleans.
 Ordway, J. M., New Orleans.

Ordway, Mrs. J. M., New Orleans.
 Popham, Mrs. L., New Orleans.
 Pugh, P., Thibodeaux.

MAINE.

Clarke, C. H., Richmond.
 Cumming, Mrs. F. T., Portland.
 Fernald, M. C., Orono.
 Freeman, Elizabeth, Cherryfield.
 Hunter, M. C., Cherryfield.
 Lakeman, Anna M., Hallowell.

Lee, Leslie A., Brunswick.
 Peck, Roland M., Ellsworth.
 Roberts, Henriette, Hallowell.
 Robinson, F., Brunswick.
 Stevens, Ellen D., Portland.

MARYLAND.

o, F. W., Baltimore.
 C. F., Baltimore.
 Philip H., Baltimore.
 Charles E., Baltimore.
 1, W. I., Baltimore.
 1, Mrs. W. I., Baltimore.
 in, John E., Baltimore.
 1, E. C., Baltimore.
 Thomas J., Baltimore.

White, Jennie I., Baltimore.
 White, Mrs. W., Baltimore.
 Wiegand, Henry H., Baltimore.
 Wiegand, W. D., Baltimore.
 Wiegand, Mrs. W. D., Baltimore.
 Wilson, E., Baltimore.
 Wilson, I., Baltimore.
 Wilson, Mrs. M., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Sarah C., West Newton.
 Charles H., Newtonville.
 J. H., Brockton.
 ler, C. F., Worcester.
 ler, Mrs. C. F., Worcester.
 er, Albert L., Lowell.
 Henry F., North Scituate.
 Marcellus G., Melrose Highlands.
 J. F., Groveland.
 Gardner C., Swampscott.
 e, I. S., East Douglass.
 , Mrs. G. A., Boston.
 ll, E. M., South Hadley.
 t, G. H., Boston.
 A. J., Webster.
 , Sylvia E., Boston.
 th, M. G., Auburndale.
 fred W., West Newton.
 Mrs. P. A., Spencer.
 k, Carroll, Cambridgeport.
 t, A. J., Everett.
 Charles H., Lawrence.
 m, Ashley, Marlboro.
 Annie E., Boston.
 an, Sarah L., Dorchester.
 , Clara H., Boston.
 ed, A. L., Boston.
 an, Mary L., South Amherst.
 C. E., Amesbury.
 R. F., Amesbury.
 ags, E., Springfield.
 ags, Mrs. E., Springfield.
 , S. P., South Framingham.
 A., Northampton.
 Elizabeth M., Woburn.
 Philip K., Cambridge.
 , Alfred, Boston.
 , Mrs. Cordelia M., Boston.
 s, Lucy L., Boston.
 te, A. J., South Hadley.
 W. F., Rockland.
 ter, C., Auburndale.
 , J. E., Allston.
 , Mrs. J. E., Allston.
 I., Westfield.
 er, Helen E., Plymouth.
 an. W. O., Salem.
 Charlotte M., Cambridge.
 L. M., Boston.
 Mary F., Allston.
 George F., Worcester.

Cogswell, Frances, Cambridge.
 Coleman, G. W., Boston.
 Coit, Martha G., Milton.
 Covell, A., Shelburne Falls.
 Covell, R., Shelburne Falls.
 Cowles, Irene, South Hadley.
 Crosby, Mrs. Sarah B., Waltham.
 Cunningham, Mrs. M. L., Roslindale.
 Curtin, Benj. E., Boston.
 Curtin, Mrs. B. E., Boston.
 Darling, Frederick H., North Cambridge.
 Davis, A. Otis, Worcester.
 Davis, Mrs. Geo. D., Worcester.
 Doane, Mrs. C. H., Charlestown.
 Drew, Maria L., Cambridgeport.
 Duren, Alice M., Woburn.
 Durkee, S. C. C., Melrose.
 Durkee, Wm. C., Boston.
 Durrell, Ellen E., Lawrence.
 Dyer, Annie K., Boston.
 Dyer, Benj. F., South Braintree.
 Dyer, Jessie S., Boston.
 Dyer, Mrs. M. J., Boston.
 Eager, Bertha E., Lancaster.
 Edwards, Anna C., South Hadley.
 Ellis, Myra I., Cambridgeport.
 Evans, Lucy E., Wakefield.
 Ewing, E. C., Danvers.
 Faxon, Mary H., South Boston Point.
 Fern, Mrs. O. L., Cambridgeport.
 Ferry, Mrs. I. H., Easthampton.
 Field, M. Louise, Boston.
 Flint, Mrs. E. R., Charlestown.
 Foster, Leona E., Methuen.
 Gardner, Frances M., Springfield.
 Gardner, Mrs. H. M., Salem.
 Gates, Charles S., Amherst.
 Giddings, Laura E., Somerville.
 Gilmore, Mary E., North Easton.
 Gladden, M. E., Boston.
 Goodale, Mary S., Boston.
 Green, Mrs. M. C., Adams.
 Green, W. B., Adams.
 Greene, Mary A., Jamaica Plain.
 Greene, Mrs. Mary F., Jamaica Plain.
 Gumming, J. H., Boston.
 Gunnison, Sarah J., Cambridge.
 Hale, C. T., Rochester.
 Hale, F. M., Boston.
 Hanson, Martha N., Malden.
 Hardy, Willis C., Boston.

MASSACHUSETTS—CONCLUDED.

- Harrington, Edith C., Lexington.
 Hart, Mrs. J. M., Boston.
 Hawes, Charlotte W., Boston.
 Hawes, Lizzie J., Wrentham.
 Henshaw, M., Boston.
 Hill, C. W., Boston.
 Hill, Mrs. C. W., Boston.
 Hillebrand, M. E., South Hadley.
 Hoffman, Mrs. E. L., Shelburne Falls.
 Hoffman, J. H., Shelburne Falls.
 Howe, W. H., Marble.
 Hunter, Annie B., Charlestown.
 Hyde, Mrs. Martha N., Brookfield.
 Ide, E. W., Dorchester.
 Ingraham, Flora C., Waltham.
 Ireson, Mrs. Jane, Boston.
 Ireson, J. E., Boston.
 Jordan, A. C., Ipswich.
 Jordan, E. C., Newton Lower Falls.
 • Jordan, S. A., Newton Lower Falls.
 Josselyn, A. P., Charlestown.
 Kelley, M. E. V., Pittsfield.
 Keyes, Wm., Bridgewater.
 Kies, Marietta, South Hadley.
 Kimball, E. P., Lowell.
 Knowles, T. T., Boston.
 Lincoln, Ellen, Hingham Center.
 Lincoln, Hosea H., East Boston.
 Lothrop, D. S., Hingham.
 Lovering, Mary F., East Boston.
 Lucas, Martha B., Boston.
 MacDonald, H. V., Boston.
 MacDonald, Mrs. H. V., Boston.
 MacDonald, J. W., Stoneham.
 McCormack, M. E., Boston.
 Meserve, Alonzo, Boston.
 Meserve, C. F., Boston.
 Meserve, J. M., Boston.
 Miller, A. C., Cambridge.
 Montgomery, Mrs. Emma A., Somerville.
 Morse, Frank E., Boston.
 Morse, Lizzie E., North Easton.
 Munsell, Albert H., Boston.
 Nickels, Mrs. A. P., Cambridge.
 Noble, Arthur, Boston.
 Noble, Mrs. Arthur, Boston.
 Nye, Abbie F., Charlestown.
 Page, Frank E., Amherst.
 Parker, Annie B., Reading.
 Partridge, Lucy F., Holliston.
 Patrick, L. S., Hopedale.
 Patterson, Mrs. W. M., Chelsea.
 Payson, J. W., Hyde Park.
 Payson, Mrs. J. W., Hyde Park.
 Perry, Carroll, Williamstown.
 Perry, Elizabeth H., Springfield.
 Pishon, Eva, East Boston.
 Pratt, Isabel H., Lawrence.
 Pratt, M., Lawrence.
 Pratt, Ruth L., Reading.
 Prime, E. L., Salem.
 Prime, Samuel M., Salem.
 Rea, Adelaide A., Boston.
 Richardson, Mrs. E., Boston.
 Ring, Lizzie, Westfield.
 Rolston, Estella, Worcester.
 Rowe, A. H., Lawrence.
 Rutan, Chas. H., Brookline.
 Salisbury, A. M., Marlboro.
 Scudder, Horace E., Cambridge.
 Silver, Edgar O., Boston.
 Silver, Mrs. Edgar O., Boston.
 Small, Carrie E., Plymouth.
 Smith, Carrie F., Lowell.
 Smith, Eliz. B., Salem.
 Smith, Eva J., Newburyport.
 Smith, E. Warren, Salem.
 • Smith, O. J., Boston.
 Somes, Anna E., South Boston.
 Stebbins, Alice G., Fitchburg.
 Stevens, Lizzie F., Everett.
 Stickney, Mrs. J. N., Boston.
 Stockin, A. C., Boston.
 Stone, Alva, Ashland.
 Stone, Silas C., Boston.
 Stratton, Margaret E., Wellesley.
 Summerhayes, Mrs. E. C., Somerville.
 Swan, Bessie, Methuen.
 Sweetser, Mrs. N. C., Newton Lower Falls.
 Taylor, Anna B., Charlestown.
 Teasdale, Etta, Somerville.
 Thayer, Elizabeth F., Lexington.
 Thayer, Etta M., Worcester.
 Thomas, Jas. C., Boston.
 Tufts, Mary E., Medfield.
 Tuttle, C. D., Concord.
 Waitt, Sarah B., Cambridge.
 Wardwell, Clara C., Salem.
 Wason, Leonard C., Brookline.
 Watson, Hattie A., Boston.
 Wellington, Ada H., Cambridge.
 Whittier, M. F., Worcester.
 Whitney, Sarah A., West Newton.
 Williams, Mrs. Ellen A., Framingham.

MICHIGAN.

- Abernethy, E. F., Utica.
 Adams, Henry C., Ann Arbor.
 Barton, H. H., Muskegon.
 Birch, Mrs. J. W., Menominee.
 Bird, Harry L., Menominee.
 Bird, J. W., Menominee.
 Bowen, W. J., Muskegon.
 Brooks, Wm. H., Ypsilanti.
 Brown, Lillie E., Tecumseh.
 Clark, F. C., Ann Arbor.
 Curtis, Henry M., Flint.
 Dutton, May, Detroit.
 Ford, Henry A., Detroit.
 Greenfield, Dora L., Athens.
 Hahn, Sophie A., Detroit.
 Halsey, L. R., Battle Creek.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIPS.

MICHIGAN—CONCLUDED.

brand, G. A., Adrian.
 Mrs. Helen J., Grand Rapids.
 ins, Kate S., Ludington.
 atrick, Ella, Battle Creek.
 an, Mary D., Bonne Centre.
 , J. H., Ypsilanti.
 , Mrs. M. A., Romeo.
 son, G. G., Battle Creek.
 ager, Marie, Ann Arbor.
 , M. J., Ishpeming.
 er, F. William, Ida.
 l, Henry, Ann Arbor.

Sewall, Mrs. Isabel J., Ann Arbor.
 Smith, E. Azalia, Detroit.
 Stray, George M., Ludington.
 Stray, Mrs. George M., Ludington.
 Stray, W. H., Ludington.
 Van Slyke, L. L., Ann Arbor.
 Van Slyke, Mrs. L. L., Ann Arbor.
 Voigt, Christine L., Detroit.
 Voigt, Marie E., Detroit.
 Webster, A. F., Ludington.
 Wellington, I. M., Muskegon.
 Witter, Willis G., Menominee.

MINNESOTA.

son, Mary Alma, St. Paul.
 r, Fannie, St. Paul.
 ard, Mary E., St. Cloud.
 ett, Sarah, Minneapolis.
 on, M., St. Paul.
 l, Mrs. Jane A., Minneapolis.
 l, R. D., Minneapolis.
 le, Edwin K., Cañon River Falls.
 an, J. W., Minneapolis.
 iarriet M., Minneapolis.
 , Caroline, Winona.
 , Mrs. M. E., Winona.
 , V. G., Winona.
 , Lindie, Kasson.
 , Etta M., Rochester.
 A., Minneapolis.
 uth, Hattie J., Minneapolis.
 t, C. B., St. Paul.
 t, Mrs. C. B., St. Paul.
 is, C. L., Winona.
 l. S., Minneapolis.
 , Minne B., Minneapolis.
 , Mattie L., Minneapolis.
 Mrs. L. B., St. Paul.
 F. H., St. Paul.
 ll, L. J., Minneapolis.
 h, Marie, Duluth.
 Mary A., Winona.
 Chas. A., Duluth.

Long, Mrs. Chas. A., Duluth.
 Manning, Mrs. Thos., St. Paul.
 Mann, Hattie E., Claremont.
 McGlauffin, Ida B., Northfield.
 McIntyre, K. F., St. Paul.
 Minor, Miss Louis, St. Paul.
 Morse, C. H., Minneapolis.
 Morse, Mrs. C. H., Minneapolis.
 Morse, Master N., Minneapolis.
 Pickard, C. A., St. Paul.
 Pearson, F. B., St. Paul.
 Robertson, J., Baker City.
 Robertson, Mrs. Jennie L., Baker City.
 Richardson, T. J., Minneapolis.
 Richardson, Mrs. F. W., Minneapolis.
 Schaffer, Jennie, Minneapolis.
 Shepard, Irwin, Winona.
 Shepard, Mrs. Irwin, Winona.
 Smedley, Jennie A., Stillwater.
 Sprague, Sarah E., Minneapolis.
 St. John, George E., Hamilton.
 Stryker, Anna K., Minneapolis.
 Taylor, Mrs. Maggie K., Duluth.
 Thibault, Mrs. F., Minneapolis.
 Trevette, E. L., Minneapolis.
 Upham, Emily C., Winona.
 Weed, Esther, St. Paul.
 Wetherby, J. K., Minneapolis.
 Woods, L. J., Winona.

MISSISSIPPI.

E. E., Greenville.
 a, Mary, Holly Springs.
 on, Mary, Mexico.
 on, John W., University.
 omery, W. A., Oxford.

Peques, E., Oxford.
 Scales, Henry M., Columbus.
 Trigg, Sue P., Greenville.
 Wall, R. L., Courtland.
 Wright, Edmund W., Vicksburg.

MISSOURI.

son, Mrs. Ione, St. Louis.
 ws, Isabella M., St. Louis.
 ws, Mrs. E. D., St. Louis.
 l. J. M., Kearney.
 Belle, St. Louis.
 Mrs. Ella V., St. Louis.
 , John, St. Louis.
 , M., St. Louis.

Baron, Belle, St. Louis.
 Bass, I. H., Columbia.
 Bast, G. Y., New Florence.
 Bell, Fannie S., Moberly.
 Bell, Mrs. M. L., Moberly.
 Boech, Nellie L., St. Louis.
 Brockett, Sarah S., Kansas City.
 Brown, Addie S., Hannibal.

MISSOURI—CONCLUDED.

Buchanan, John T., Kansas City.
 Cartwright, Eudora, Longwood.
 Charles, A. L., Kansas City.
 Charles, Mrs. A. S., Fulton.
 Charles, B. H., Fulton.
 Charles, Mrs. Mary A., Kansas City.
 Charles, Nancy, Kansas City.
 Christy, Marie, St. Louis.
 Clark, Laura A., Rush Hill.
 Cole, H. M., St. Joseph.
 Cook, Kate, Lindley.
 Daggett, C. D., Kansas City.
 Daniels, Dana, St. Louis.
 Daniels, Cora G., St. Louis.
 Davis, Adra A., Nevada.
 Davis, A. L., Nevada.
 Dew, J. T., Kansas City.
 Drummond, J. H., Columbia.
 Durham, Jessie L., Springfield.
 Dutcher, C. H., Warrensburg.
 Dutcher, R. P., Warrensburg.
 Eddy, M. W., St. Louis.
 Edwards, Thomas, Kansas City.
 Eichhorz, Lina, Kansas City.
 Fenby, E., St. Louis.
 Fenby, S., St. Louis.
 Force, Phebe M., St. Joseph.
 Fruchte, Amelia C., St. Louis.
 Gale, Horace B., St. Louis.
 Glindinin, Ida, Mexico.
 Goodlett, Lottie, St. Louis.
 Goodlett, W. C., St. Louis.
 Gordon, Nannie S., Lexington.
 Hackstaff, Cate L., St. Louis.
 Hance, Mamie, Hannibal.
 Hammond, Juliet, St. Louis.
 Hammond, William G., St. Louis.
 Hannah, W. E., Moberly.
 Hays, Mrs. S. K., St. Louis.
 Hayes, Almira, Kansas City.
 Hazel, J. F., Kansas City.
 Hazel, Mrs. Celia F., Kansas City.
 Hill, John B., Kansas City.
 Holmes, Susan, Kansas City.
 Jennings, Mrs. T. C., St. Louis.
 Johnson, Gertrude F., Kansas City.
 Jones, James, St. Louis.
 Jones, Jennie M. A., St. Louis.
 Karringer, Mattie, Kansas City.
 Kimberlin, W. H., Kansas City.
 Kinked, Jennie, St. Louis.
 Koch, H. A., Warrenton.
 Krall, G. W., St. Louis.
 Lawrence, Lizzie, Hume.
 Lewis, Dan., Rockport.
 Lincoln, S. F., St. Louis.
 Locke, Josephine C., St. Louis.
 Martin, Sophie T., St. Louis.
 Masters, Wm., Kansas City.

McCulloch, Mary C., St. Louis.
 McKim, Lou, Stephan's Store.
 McLeary, H. S., Cape Girardeau.
 Merwin, J. B., St. Louis.
 Miller, Mollie, McCredie.
 Mitchell, E. D., Columbia.
 Morrow, Stella, Warrensburg.
 Mosher, W. P., St. Louis.
 Mueller, Bertha L., St. Louis.
 Muff, Mrs. Freda, Kansas City.
 Ogeis, Mrs. Ella, Kansas City.
 Overton, L. B., Fulton.
 Parker, C. C., Lexington.
 Parsons, F. W., California.
 Pollard, Nannie A., Fulton.
 Poorman, Mrs. J. B., St. Louis.
 Ramp, Minnie, Kansas City.
 Ratliff, Mrs. Luta, Kansas City.
 Ratliff, Mary, Kansas City.
 Rea, George H., Cote Brillianta.
 Reed, B. F., Huntsville.
 Reeder, William H., Kansas City.
 Richardson, Louise, Maxville.
 Ringling, Clara, St. Louis.
 Robinson, Temple B., Paris.
 Ross, C. A., St. Louis.
 Schiefer, Cordelia M., St. Louis.
 Schmidt, Annie, St. Louis.
 Schmidt, Thekla, St. Louis.
 Smith, W. A., Lexington.
 Scott, M. E., Nevada.
 Scott, W. J., Kansas City.
 Scott, Mrs. W. J., Kansas City.
 Shields, Inez, Fulton.
 Single, Minna R., Urich.
 Snowden, Cora, St. Joseph.
 Spalding, Mrs. R. P., St. Louis.
 Strange, Eva, Louisiana.
 Thom, J. C., St. Louis.
 Thomas, Emma B., St. Louis.
 Thomas, Kittie A., St. Louis.
 Thomas, Lizzie E., Carthage.
 Thomas, W. L., St. Louis.
 Torrey, Carrie F., Carthage.
 Tower, Abby L., St. Louis.
 Wall, Belle, St. Joseph.
 Walls, Martha A., St. Louis.
 Warren, Lizzie L., Sedalia.
 Watts, Katie, Fayette.
 Waugh, Alice G., St. Louis.
 Waugh, Elizabeth, St. Louis.
 Wengler, J. A., St. Louis.
 Wiener, L., Kansas City.
 Wiggernhorn, Mrs. C. P., St. Louis.
 Williams, W. H., Kansas City.
 Wilson, Carrie B., Paris.
 Woodward, C. M., St. Louis.
 Woodward, Mrs. C. M., St. Louis.

MONTANA.

Cummins, Mrs. M. S., Helena.
 Cummins, W. F., Helena.

Smith, Adison, Deer Lodge.
 Williamson, Sallie, Dillon.

NEBRASKA.

r, Lizzie L., Omaha.
 V. Q., Lincoln.
 Mrs. W. Q., Lincoln.
 A. N., Wymore.
 vs, M. J., Norfolk.
 mma, Fremont.
 am, Geo. L., Peru.
 am, Mrs. Geo. L., Peru.
 n, Jennie, North Bend.
 n, Jessie, North Bend.
 n, J. H., North Bend.
 y, E. T., Lincoln.
 y, Mrs. E. T., Lincoln.
 , Edith M., Omaha.
 , Gertrude, Omaha.
 , H. M., Omaha.
 , Mrs. H. M., Omaha.
 Jessie, Lincoln.
 Leilie E., Alliance.
 , M. E., McCook.

McKenzie, J. M., York.
 McKinnon, J. T., Franklin.
 Nettleton, Mrs. C. L., McCook.
 Oakley, Owen, Lincoln.
 Oakley, M. E., Lincoln.
 Oakley, Mrs. R. H., Lincoln.
 Quackenbush, Mrs. E., Omaha.
 Rathbun, Geo. R., Omaha.
 Rosenkrens, J. H., Haigler.
 Rosenkrens, Mrs. J. H., Haigler.
 Rosse, Mrs. L. R., Central City.
 Rouse, John, Greenwood.
 Schaefer, Mrs. C. A., Kimball.
 Schlesinger, C., Omaha.
 Schlesinger, Mrs. D., Omaha.
 Scott, A. M., Lyons.
 Shaw, C. E., Greenwood.
 Steer, Jos. H., Santee Agency.
 Welch, Addie, Lincoln.
 White, Ellen M., Omaha.

NEVADA.

, M. Lydia, Genoa.
 ck, E. C., Reno.
 twerper, Kate, Carson City.
 , Mrs. F. A., Virginia City.
 s, F. Irene, Carson City.
 s, Laure E., Carson City.
 lee, Carrie A., Winnemucca.
 , W. W., Elko.
 , D. D., Reno.
 , Morgan D., Tuscarora.
 John E., Virginia City.
 v, S. D., Battle Mountain.
 E. A., Reno.
 Laura E., Reno.
 Helen J., Tuscarora.
 gham, E. L., Dayton.
 eld, A., Austin.
 eld, M., Austin.
 Mrs. M. A., Virginia City.
 Children, Virginia City.
 H. K., Reno.
 e, Joseph A., Virginia City.
 Mrs. F. M., Virginia City.
 ead, Lou, Elko.
 Edwin, Austin.
 , Mary E., Carson City.
 ham, Alice, Reno.
 ham, Vannie, Reno.
 W. C., Carson City.
 , Frances A., Reno.
 , S. M., Reno.
 Phirza, Virginia City.
 on, Jessie, Reno.
 , Mabel R., Carson.
 , Vallie E., Carson.
 , Mrs. C., Virginia City.
 Jenkie, Winnemucca.
 Ella, Virginia City.
 ie, Georgie M., Gold Hill.
 , J., Virginia City.

Griffin, Frank L., Reno.
 Griffith, Laura B., Trenton.
 Groves, Chas. H., Unionville.
 Guthrie, H. R., Reno.
 Hanley, M. E., Virginia City.
 Harris, Artemas E., Wellington.
 Henry, Mary, Reno.
 Henderson, Alice, Gold Hill.
 Henderson, Cassie, Gold Hill.
 Herrod, Annie T., Rough and Ready.
 Hinch, Jennie, Virginia City.
 Horton, Maud, Dayton.
 Hoff, Helen M., Virginia City.
 Hoff, Minnie A., Virginia City.
 Hummel, Gussie, Virginia City.
 Hull, L. C., Austin.
 Jamison, Mrs. Lisle, Reno.
 Jennings, Louise, Virginia City.
 Jones, Mate E., Carson City.
 Kaiser, Mrs. Charles, Reno.
 Keller, James, Virginia City.
 Kelley, Jennie, Gold Hill.
 Kelley, Katie, Gold Hill.
 Knowlton, Mrs. E. J., Reno.
 Lackey, Mrs. A., Gold Hill.
 Lackey, Ada F., Reno.
 Lackey, H. J., Gold Hill.
 Lackey, Ida M., Gold Hill.
 Lathrop, Mrs. Emma, Dayton.
 Lathrop, Mary M., Dayton.
 Lewers, Robert, Dayton.
 Leete, Mary, Carson City.
 Lingo, Stephen S., Hawthorne.
 Lloyd, Mary, Carson City.
 Long, Maggie W., Virginia City.
 Longabaugh, Emily, Carson City.
 Lucas, Mary D., Reno.
 Lyman, Mrs., Virginia City.
 MacElroy, Alice E., Reno.
 MacLaughlin, Kate, Ruby Hill.

NEVADA—CONCLUDED.

McClellan, E. C., Elko.
 McCoy, Delia, Virginia City.
 McIntosh, Mary E., Reno.
 McIntyre, Mrs. J., Virginia City.
 Miller, W. McN., Reno.
 Mott, Mary D., Carson City.
 Musgrove, N. G., Carson City.
 Musgrove, Mrs. W. R., Carson City.
 Mygatt, Mrs. H. E., Virginia City.
 Nevin, Kate, Virginia City.
 Northrop, Flora, Reno.
 Park, Addie, Reno.
 Penroll, Miss, Gold Hill.
 Penroll, Mrs., Gold Hill.
 Phillips, Effie, Eureka.
 Quinlan, Nora, Virginia City.
 Randall, Dolly, Dayton.
 Raycroft, J. A., Carson City.
 Ring, Orvis, Reno.
 Samuels, Mrs. L., Virginia City.
 Samuels, Francis, Virginia City.
 Sharp, Anna, Winnemucca.
 Sharpe, Nettie C., Gold Hill.
 Shirley, Etta, Dayton.
 Shirley, Victoria, Dayton.
 Shirley, Wm., Dayton.
 Shoemaker, Gertrude, Reno.

Schneider, L. L., Carson City.
 Simpson, Mrs. Elda A., Reno.
 Simpson, Iva, Reno.
 Slaven, Kate I., Battle Mountain.
 Slingerland, Eva, Virginia City.
 Smith, Bertha A., Tuscarora.
 Smith, N. F., Winnemucca.
 Starling, Ella, Carson City.
 St. Clair, Mrs. S. A., Wells.
 Steiner, Mary, Reno.
 Steiner, Rachel, Reno.
 Taylor, O. L., Virginia City.
 Timmons, Winnie, Alconda.
 Trolson, Josie, Austin.
 Vailancourt, F., Reno.
 Waltz, Mrs., Virginia City.
 Waltz, Mrs. W. A., Virginia City.
 Wasson, Clara, Carson City.
 Wasson, Libbie, Carson City.
 Wagner, Bertha, Carson City.
 Wendell, Mrs. M., Eureka.
 White, Mrs. J. C., Carson City.
 White, L. Edith, Carson City.
 Williamson, Mrs. J. R., Austin.
 Work, F. J., Austin.
 Wright, Maggie, Elko.
 Wright, Sadie, Elko.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Bickford, Hattie J., Dover.
 Cook, E. M., Nashua.
 Dame, Eliza S., Dover.
 French, Annie E., Pittsfield.
 Gill, M. M., Franklin Falls.
 Higgins, Geo. F., Manchester.

Hoyt, Mrs. L. Louise, Concord.
 Huse, Mrs. Isaac, Manchester.
 Jones, Nellie V., Wilton.
 Richardson, Cyrus, Nashua.
 Whitaker, G. A., West Lebanon.

NEW JERSEY.

Baldwin, Mary A., Newark.
 Bigelow, George H., Princeton.
 Bosworth, M. A., Trenton.
 Brown, Mrs. W. H., Newark.
 Button, Oscar P., Elizabeth.
 Canniff, May C., Newark.
 Carr, Elias F., Trenton.
 Carr, T. J., Trenton.
 Chambers, Hattie M., Newark.
 Chambers, Mrs. Her., Newark.
 Chambers, R. L., Newark.
 Chase, Emeline E., East Orange.
 Clarke, Joseph, Newark.
 Cramer, P., New Hampton.
 Delano, Laura C., Newark.
 Denison, Sadie O., Lyndhurst.
 Downing, Charles, West Orange.
 Downing, Mrs. E. F., West Orange.
 Downing, O. P., West Orange.
 Downing, Mrs. O. P., West Orange.
 Eckersley, W., Long Branch City.

Ely, Kate, Black's Mills.
 Harris, A. C., Salem City.
 Hay, Florence, Newark.
 Hay, Mabel, Newark.
 Lycett, William, Hoboken.
 McChesney, C. Eugene, Paterson.
 McElray, Ella, Haddonfield.
 Miller, Mallon M., Newark.
 Prescott, C. J., Orange.
 Reed, Geo., Long Branch City.
 Sherman, E. C., South Orange.
 Smith, Alice, Trenton.
 Steeleman, Rosa, Bakersville.
 Sutherland, E., Passaic.
 Sutherland, Mrs. H., Passaic.
 Veghte, Sarah E., Plainfield.
 Yapple, A. T., Newark.
 Yapple, Nellie, Newark.
 Young, Mrs. A. E., Newark.
 Young, Amelia R., Newark.

NEW MEXICO.

Mae, Kelley.
 , Mrs. Lottie A., Las Vegas.
 ater, Mrs. S. E., Santa Fé.
 , Mrs. Julia W., Albuquerque.
 n, Anna E., Albuquerque.
 n, Mrs. M. F., Albuquerque.
 Ida M., Albuquerque.
 m, Kate H., Grants.
 ann, Mrs. Albert, Albuquerque.
 A. N., Socorro.
 Ida L., Grants.
 e. Mary E., Albuquerque.
 eld, A., Albuquerque.

Grunsfeld, Eddie, Albuquerque.
 Grunsfeld, Mrs. A., Albuquerque.
 Hodgins, C. E., Albuquerque.
 Jaffa, Bennie, Albuquerque.
 Jaffa, H. N., Albuquerque.
 Jaffa, Mrs. H. N., Albuquerque.
 Jewell, J. S., Albuquerque.
 Jones, Mrs. May, Las Vegas.
 Kaenfer, Mary, Albuquerque.
 McClellan, Mrs. L. M., Albuquerque.
 Overman, Frances, Albuquerque.
 Roseboom, J. B., Kelley.
 Scheck, Peter, Albuquerque.

NEW YORK.

ethy, J. W., Brooklyn.
 Jerome, New York.
 Kittie W., Brooklyn.
 Mrs. M. A., Utica.
 Daniel T., New York.
 , Hanna A., Mariner's Harbor.
 Anna, New York.
 , A. E., New York.
 , Mary, New York.
 d, A. E., New York.
 d, G. T., New York.
 d, A. L., New York.
 ith, Elizabeth R., New York.
 or, Laura F., Brooklyn.
 nin, George H., Albany.
 ll, L. W., New York.
 K., New York.
 Mrs. L. D., New York.
 ell, J. L., Albany.
 an, Lillie H., Cohoes.
 . Henry M., Buffalo.
 , M. A., New York.
 out, James, New York.
 out, Mrs. Sarah D., New York.
 y, Mrs. A. I., Brooklyn.
 ead, Ella, Troy.
 k. Rush M., Troy.
 ell, Anna, Brooklyn.
 ater, Laura M., Elbridge.
 ater, Mrs. M., Brooklyn.
 an, A. E., New York.
 an, Mrs. E. L., New York.
 , William S., Albany.
 shaw, William H., Troy.
 er, Minnie J., Bergen.
 n. A., New York.
 Emma F., Brooklyn.
 l. N. F., Rochester.
 er. J. F., Buffalo.
 p, Hattie L., New York.
 t, W. M., Buffalo.
 Mary E., Brooklyn.
 aday, A., Newburg.
 in, Sophie, Albany.
 Mary, Brooklyn.
 ce, Mrs. S. M., New York.
 er, R. H., New York.

Dickson, M. G., Rochester.
 Downs, E., Brooklyn.
 Ely, A. M., Poughkeepsie.
 French, Anna D., New York.
 Friedberg, W. B., New York.
 Ford, N., New York.
 Funston, Frances, New York.
 Furbish, A. J. E., New York.
 Garnett, Sarah J. S., New York.
 Gillette, N. H., Brooklyn.
 Goldie, Sarah, New York.
 Greene, Dascom, Troy.
 Greene, Mrs. D., Troy.
 Greene, J. B., New York.
 Griffin, Olivia A., White Plains.
 Hanaway, Emily S., New York.
 Harrison, Fanny R., Sag Harbor.
 Harrison, H. L., New York.
 Harrison, J. J., Sag Harbor.
 Hayes, A. H., Colden.
 Haynor, Charlotte E., Brooklyn.
 Hendee, Lily L., New York.
 Hickok, L. C., New York.
 Hilke, Katherine E., New York.
 Hill, C. A., Brooklyn.
 Hill, Mrs. P. C., Gouverneur.
 Hill, Martha, Gouverneur.
 Hendrikson, W. H., Brooklyn.
 Hodges, Julia, New York.
 Hollingsworth, E. V., Brooklyn.
 Hoogland, M. H., Brooklyn.
 Horton, Mrs. J. W., Brooklyn.
 Howard, H., Baldwinsville.
 Howard, Mrs. H., Baldwinsville.
 Howe, Estelle M., Brooklyn.
 Hyers, Estelle, New York.
 Johnson, Emily A., Rochester.
 Johnson, H. S., Brooklyn.
 Jones, E. L., Brooklyn.
 Kingsley, E. S., Rochester.
 Kingsley, Mrs. L., Rochester.
 Kreemer, Sarah C., New York.
 Laidlaw, Walter, West Troy.
 Leake, Harriet C., New York.
 Littlejohn, Mrs. G. W., Milton-on-Hudson.
 Lockwood, D. A., Morrisville.
 Lovett, Chas. H., New York.

NEW YORK—CONCLUDED.

Lowery, Jane E., Brockport.
 Mack, Kate M., Westfield.
 Mackie, E. J., Newburg.
 Mackie, J. W., Newburg.
 Magovern, Mary A., New York.
 Martin, Mrs. M., New York.
 Mason, Mrs. E., Rochester.
 McCabe, James J., Brooklyn.
 McConville, Miss, Brooklyn.
 McConville, Mary, Brooklyn.
 McDougall, Jennie, Sandy Hill.
 McDougall, Mrs. William, Sandy Hill.
 McKinna, May, Jamestown.
 McLenathen, W. H., Brooklyn.
 McLenathen, Mrs. W. H., Brooklyn.
 McWilliams, H., Brooklyn.
 Merwin, A. G., Brooklyn.
 Merwin, Mrs. Maria F., Brooklyn.
 Meyer, J. H., New York.
 Miller, J. F., New York.
 Miller, Sara C., New York.
 Miner, Clara W., New York.
 Morey, Wm. C., Rochester.
 Moore, Kate A., Buffalo.
 Morrill, K. L., New York.
 Morrill, Mrs. M. A., New York.
 Morrill, Marietta, New York.
 Munro, John, Elbridge.
 Munro, Mrs. John, Elbridge.
 Norris, Adelaide, Potsdam.
 O'Leary, Annie M., New York.
 Osborn, F. W., Brooklyn.
 Otten, M., Rochester.
 Parker, Joseph S., Brooklyn.
 Parker, William, New York.
 Pettit, James B., New York.
 Pettit, M. E., New York.
 Phillips, A. A., Brooklyn.
 Porter, M. C., Buffalo.
 Potter, James E., Honeoye Falls.
 Power, Gussie, Hudson.
 Pratt, H. A., Gloversville.
 Pratt Wm. O., Brooklyn.
 Ray, Mrs. C. A., Buffalo.
 Ridge, W. N., New York.
 Riker, J. F., Ontario.
 Roberson, Joseph R., New York.
 Roberts, Mrs. K. H., Brooklyn.
 Roome, M. Louisa, New York.
 Roome, William, New York.
 Root, Kate, Utica.
 Rosenberg, Max, New York.
 Rosenberg, Minnie, New York.
 Savin, Mrs. S. J., New York.
 Schloss, Mathilde, New York.
 Semon, Joseph, New York.
 Sherman, F. M., Springville.
 Sherman, R. M., jr., New York.

Shipway, Sarah W., Cherry Valley.
 Sill, E. M., Brooklyn.
 Simmons, Etta, New York.
 Skidmore, Chas. H., New York.
 Smart, Mrs. E. F., Flushing.
 Smart, L. E., Flushing.
 Smart, F. R., jr., Flushing.
 Smith, Abram P., Courtland.
 Smith, Emma T., New York.
 Smith, Mrs. J. P., Brooklyn.
 Smith, S. Agnes, New York.
 Sohst, Adolph, New York.
 Sohst, Mrs. Adolph, New York.
 Sohst, Master R., New York.
 Sohst, Sophia, New York.
 Sohst, Tillie, New York.
 Sommenburg, B., New York.
 Sommenburg, S., New York.
 Spaulding, M. E., New York.
 Stacker, Mrs. E. C., Brooklyn.
 Staley, S. A., Brooklyn.
 Stone, Mrs. C. H., Brooklyn.
 Stone, E. K., Brooklyn.
 Stone, Miss, Brooklyn.
 Sullivan, Mrs. M. K., New York.
 Sullivan, M., New York.
 Stutliff, Mary L., Bath-on-Hudson.
 Sutro, Florence C., New York.
 Sutro, Theodore, New York.
 Swartwout, Ellen, Huguenot.
 Sykes, Lucy, Brooklyn.
 Tait, Mary E., New York.
 Tait, Mary J., New York.
 Taylor, Mrs. T. W., Brooklyn.
 Tenison, W. D., New York.
 Tiedeman, C. W., Buffalo.
 Titus, S. E., New York.
 Tracy, Nora T., Buffalo.
 Turney, Winthrop, New York.
 Tuthill, B., Wolcott.
 Tuttle, Bertha, Brooklyn.
 Underwood, Lucien M., Syracuse.
 Underwood, Maria A., Syracuse.
 Van Akin, Mrs. G., New York.
 Van Dyke, Mrs. J. M., New York.
 Vane, Louise N., Fairport.
 Van Vleck, Frank, Ithaca.
 Wade, Sadie E., New York.
 Walker, George H., Rochester.
 Wardle, Florence F., Catskill.
 Waterbury, R. A., Genesee.
 Weis, Alexander, New York.
 Whiting, Caroline F., New York.
 Winepress, M. F., New York.
 Wing, Clara L., Yonkers.
 Wisner, M. R., Middletown.
 Wright, T. W., Schenectady.
 Yendes, Lucy A., Rochester.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Faircloth, W. T., Goldsboro.
 Farrington, A. E., Wilmington.
 Harris, Robt., Reidsville.
 Lindsey, Wm., Reidsville.

Paisley, S. W., Reidsville.
 Strause, N. P., Henderson.
 Van Guilder, T. I., Ashville.
 Wolff, S. A., Dallas.

OHIO.

Allen, Willette A., South Newbury.
 Amos, T. C., Cleveland.
 Amos, W. T., Cleveland.
 Amos, Mrs. L. J., Cleveland.
 Amos, Edna L., Cleveland.
 Andrews, Lucy C., Gambier.
 Avery, Jennie H., Cleveland.
 Baldwin, Homer, Youngstown.
 Baldwin, Mrs. Homer, Youngstown.
 Ball, Emily, Portsmouth.
 Ballintine, W. G., Oberlin.
 Basim, Elizabeth, Marietta.
 Beck, John H., Noble.
 Becker, Anna, Cleveland.
 Becker, E., Cleveland.
 Benninger, Mary, Cincinnati.
 Berger, Julia E., Cleveland.
 Bigden, Mrs. A. F., Alliance.
 Boehm, L. C., Monroeville.
 Bour, Lizzie E., Canton.
 Bowen, Cina S., Sharonville.
 Boyd, Jennie A., Wooster.
 Bromwell, J. H., Wyoming.
 Brown, Abram, Columbus.
 Brown, A. B., Cincinnati.
 Brown, Charles Edgar, Cincinnati.
 Burnett, C. S., Hartford.
 Cairns, Mary, Cleveland.
 Clark, Clarence O., Rio Grande.
 Clark, Martha L., Columbus.
 Claus, A., Cleveland.
 Cleghorn, Jean, Cleveland.
 Cleverly, C. C., Alliance.
 Cole, Lucia B., Cleveland.
 Coleman, M., Elmwood.
 Colver, Leon S., Cleveland.
 Cooley, H. R., Cleveland.
 Coover, Alfred G., Wooster.
 Corcoran, Tressa, Dayton.
 Corlett, Adelaide, Cleveland.
 Corson, O. T., Cambridge.
 Cox, Mrs. William E., Trinway.
 Cox, William E., Trinway.
 Craig, D. S., Washington Court House.
 Craig, S. J., Cleveland.
 Crawford, C., Van Wert.
 Crawford, L. L., Cleveland.
 Curtis, Mrs. Lucretia, Cleveland.
 Dahl, H. B., Washington Court House.
 Daugherty, Mrs. M. A., Columbus.
 Davidson, Mrs. Mary M., Alliance.
 Day, L. W., Cleveland.
 Deyo, Albert, Wauseon.
 Eichle, W. H., Cincinnati.
 Ervin, Emilie, Avondale.
 Eversole, W. S., Wooster.
 Eversole, Mrs. W. S., Wooster.
 Fay, C. S., Wyoming.
 Ford, Mrs. M., Milledgeville.
 Ford, W. S., Milledgeville.
 Field, Fanny, Cincinnati.
 Fording, Loyd, Alliance.
 Gabel, Mrs. M., Eaton.

Galvin, Ellinor, Toledo.
 Galvin, M. C., Toledo.
 Galvin, Mrs. M. C., Toledo.
 Galvin, Rosala, Toledo.
 Gegelein, Mrs. F. L., Cleveland.
 Gray, Mrs. Sarah, Cincinnati.
 Guenther, E. M., Cleveland.
 Hampton, J. C., Cincinnati.
 Hampton, Mrs. A. N., Cincinnati.
 Hard, Mrs. Elvine C., Cleveland.
 Heizer, E., Columbus.
 Henry, Emma N., Cleveland.
 Hinsdale, B. A., Cleveland.
 Hoe, Frank W., West Jefferson.
 Howard, Mrs. Geo. A., Sharonville.
 Howard, Geo. A., Cincinnati.
 Howard, Lottie B., Sharonville.
 Howard, Mabel, Cincinnati.
 Hull, Mrs. Louise, Marietta.
 Hyde, Mary E., Mansfield.
 Jackson, Jeanette E., Wooster.
 Jones, Alice, Jackson.
 Jones, Anna B., Grandville.
 Jones, Ella M., Cleveland.
 Jones, Levi M., Canton.
 Kitchell, H. N., Winton Place.
 Langdon, Dell, Greenfield.
 Lindsley, Mary D., Cleveland.
 Longenbaugh, N., Marcy.
 Lowry, C. D., Columbus.
 Ludlow, Mrs. C., Cincinnati.
 Ludlow, Walter, Cincinnati.
 Lutz, Samuel L., Hicksville.
 Major, Samuel, Hillsboro.
 Major, Mrs. Samuel, Hillsboro.
 Maltby, Martha J., Norwalk.
 Mathews, Kittie, Painesville.
 Mathews, Marietta M., South Point.
 McFrell, E. M., Cincinnati.
 McKell, Eleanor C., Chillicothe.
 McQuiston, H., Cleveland.
 Mitchell, Pearl, Cincinnati.
 Moore, Ida M., Apurndale.
 Moore, Martha, New Philadelphia.
 Moseley, H. L., Wauseon.
 Moses, Mrs. A. L., Cleveland.
 Moses, A. L., Cleveland.
 Moses, Lewis A., Cleveland.
 Mullen, C. B., Cleveland.
 Mullen, Mamie, Cleveland.
 Munson, C. A., Columbus.
 Palmer, Corwin F., Dresden.
 Park, J. G., Ada.
 Park, Mrs. J. G., Ada.
 Parett, Emma A., Lyndon.
 Parsons, Eva E., Zanesville.
 Parsons, Mrs. Geo. C., Grandville.
 Patrick, E. M., Cincinnati.
 Pierce, Hannah M., Delaware.
 Perkins, Leona, New London.
 Peters, Miss S. A., Cleveland.
 Pinney, Robert, Warren.
 Powell, Bertha, Bellefontaine.

OHIO — CONCLUDED.

Priest, Frances M., Bryan.
 Puckett, Sada D., Clifton.
 Raynier, Cassie S., Coshocton.
 Raymond, Emily, Toledo.
 Rezner, Addie T., Cleveland.
 Riggins, Emily B., Cleveland.
 Rogers, Mrs. J. R., Loraine.
 Roll, J. H., Defiance.
 Roteck, Anna, Cleveland.
 Saxton, Geo. D., Canton.
 Schermerhorn, H. T., Cleveland.
 Schoomacher, S., Cincinnati.
 Simkins, J. D., Centerbury.
 Smith, Edna F., Mount Echo.
 Smith, Lilah, Mt. Adam.
 Smyth, Mrs. S. G., Oberlin.
 Starke, Helen L., Cleveland.
 Stern, Sarah M., Sandusky.
 Stevenson, R. F., Columbus.
 Stewart, Hannah C., Salem.
 Stewart, N. Coe, Cleveland.
 Stewart, Mrs. N. Coe, Cleveland.
 Stickney, Lucia, Cincinnati.
 Storke, S. D., Cleveland.
 Taylor, E. R., Cleveland.

Taylor, Mrs. E. R., Cleveland.
 Theurkauf, Cornelia, Cincinnati.
 Tuckerman, Jacob, South New Lyme.
 Tuckerman, Mrs. J., South New Lyme.
 Walke, Matilda, Cincinnati.
 Walter, Mrs. H. L., Mansfield.
 Wasson, Mary L., Columbus.
 Wasson, Nettie A., Columbus.
 Wayne, Bessie P., Cincinnati.
 Wenham, Emma J., Cleveland.
 West, Flora V., Chillicothe.
 Weatherby, B. M., Cincinnati.
 Weatherby, C. S., Cincinnati.
 Weatherby, Mrs. C. S., Cincinnati.
 White, Mrs. E. G., Cleveland.
 Wilkins, Jno. A., Delta.
 Williams, M. J., Columbus.
 Williams, Mrs. M. J., Columbus.
 Williams, Minnie, Columbus.
 Willson, Ella Z., Cincinnati.
 Woo, Robert C., Gambier.
 Woodward, Mrs. E. S., Cleveland.
 Yarnell, M. A., Sidney.
 Yates, C. E., Columbus.

OREGON.

Alford, Mrs. F. E., East Portland.
 Anthony, Emma J., Pendleton.
 Armstrong, A. P., Portland.
 Arnold, William S., Salem.
 Atkinson, Edward M., Portland.
 Atkinson, George H., Portland.
 Atwood, Abbie L., Portland.
 Barlow, N. N., Oregon City.
 Baker, Carrie S., La Grande.
 Baker, M., La Grande.
 Beatty, M. E., Medford.
 Bell, Annie E., Newburg.
 Bell, J. R. N., Roseburg.
 Beno, Etta, East Portland.
 Benson, Mrs. Frank W., Roseburg.
 Berry, Mrs. Lina V., Portland.
 Bitely, Belle, Portland.
 Bitely, H., Portland.
 Boone, Maggie M., Lafayette.
 Brey, H. F., Portland.
 Brower, J., Portland.
 Brown, A. F., Oakland.
 Brown, Chas. H., Oakland.
 Brown, Florence E., Portland.
 Brown, Mollie, Oakland.
 Bryan, J. J., Philomath.
 Bryan, Mrs. J. J., Philomath.
 Bryant, Minnie, Portland.
 Buchanan, J. A., South Yamhill.
 Burkhardt, Adelia, Albany.
 Burnham, Justus, Portland.
 Burnham, Mrs. Jennie E., Portland.
 Burt, George H., Shedd.
 Bushnell, Jennie, Junction City.
 Caesar, Porter T., LaGrande.

Caldwell, Chas. J., Lake View.
 Caldwell, M. C., Portland.
 Campbell, Eugene F., Portland.
 Campbell, J. C., Junction City.
 Chamberlain, Julia L., Salem.
 Casper, Maggie J., Salem.
 Cosey, Katie A., McMinnville.
 Coleman, Emma, Phoenix.
 Coleman, Mrs. M. M., Phoenix.
 Conn, N., Roseburg.
 Cook, Mrs. E. N., Salem.
 Cooper, Nannie, The Dalles.
 Cox, Mrs. L. A., Salem.
 Cox, Eva F., Salem.
 Crawford, T. H., Portland.
 Cyrus, J., Scio.
 Davidson, H. A., Portland.
 Davis, John N., Wilbur.
 Dearborn, Lizzie, Salem.
 Dickinson, E. L., Portland.
 Dolan, Elva, East Portland.
 Douglas, Mary R., Cone.
 Doughty, Millie, Monmouth.
 Duffy, Alice E., The Dalles.
 Dunlap, Mrs. C., Portland.
 Dunlap, Ione, Portland.
 Foshay, Jno., Albany.
 Gay, Annie C., Portland.
 Gay, C. W., Portland.
 Gay, Mrs. M. A., Portland.
 Gore, W. H., Phoenix.
 Gore, Alice A., Portland.
 Gore, Mrs. A. C., Portland.
 Gore, C. H., Portland.
 Gray, D. B., Salem.

OREGON—CONTINUED.

Gray, Mrs. D. B., Salem.
 Gray, Minnie, Portland.
 Gray, Nettie, Portland.
 Griffin, Jno. A., Baker City.
 Hamilton, Inez, Roseburg.
 Hanley, T., Monmouth.
 Hawes, John D., Independence.
 Hawks, R. O., Philomath.
 Healy, Rachael W., Portland.
 Held, B., Mt. Angel College.
 Helm, L. A., Corvallis.
 Hexter, Bertha, Pendleton.
 Horner, J. B., Roseburg.
 Huffer, Frank A., Eugene City.
 Hunt, Chas. S., Lebanon.
 Hutchinson, T. O., Oakland.
 Imbler, Alice, Roseburg.
 Imbler, Edith, Roseburg.
 Irvine, E. L., Salem.
 Irvine, Mrs. E. L., Salem.
 Jackson, Minnie D., Forest Grove.
 James, W. S., Portland.
 Jarvis, D. W., Centreville.
 Johnson, B. W., Corvallis.
 Kane, Visa M., Portland.
 Keezel, J. C., Philomath.
 Keezel, Mrs. J. C., Philomath.
 Kent, Annie, Civil Bend.
 Killingswor, W. M., Portland.
 Kingsley, Carrie, Portland.
 Kingsley, Kate, Portland.
 Kittridge, Herbert, Corvallis.
 Lane, Neva, Pendleton.
 Lawrence, Mary F., Astoria.
 Lee, Orville C., Springfield.
 Lee, Wallace H., Albany.
 Leick, E. A., Portland.
 Letcher, Jno. D., Corvallis.
 Logan, Hattie M., Ashland.
 Matthews, Mrs. A. B., Albany.
 Maxwell, M. Luella, Portland.
 McCornack, E. P., Salem.
 McElroy, E. B., Salem.
 McElroy, Mrs. E. B., Salem.
 McElroy, Mrs. E. B., Medford.
 McFadden, Alice B., Salem.
 McIntyre, E. J., Portland.
 McKenzie, Mrs. E. W., Portland.
 Miles, B. Clark, Newburg.
 Miles, Mrs. E., Newburg.
 Millard, M. N., Portland.
 Miller, Mrs. E. D., Portland.
 Minthorn, Mrs. H. J., Salem.
 Monroe, Mrs. C. H., Salem.
 Moore, Bernard H., Forest Grove.
 Moore, R., Scio.
 Morse, Eugenia, Portland.
 Nelson, J. R., Oregon City.
 Newton, Diana, Corvallis.
 Northfolk, Mrs. H. H., Portland.
 Northfolk, Laura, Portland.
 Northup, E. A., Portland.
 Northup, Mrs. F. C., Portland.

O'Donald, Ella, Salem.
 Ogle, Mrs. F. H., Salem.
 Ozauf, A. E., Scottsburg.
 Parish, L. N., Portland.
 Parker, W. A., Jacksonville.
 Parrish, A. M., Portland.
 Parrish, Mrs. S. J., Portland.
 Patton, E. C., Salem.
 Peake, Irene, Portland.
 Peebles, Geo. A., Salem.
 Pentland, Edith R., Scio.
 Phelps, Mrs. E. R., Portland.
 Pierce, Walter M., Western.
 Pool, Lilian E., Portland.
 Powell, M. L., Portland.
 Pratt, J. W., Portland.
 Putnam, J. B., Salem.
 Rathbun, May, Mt. Tabor.
 Reeser, Tillie, Ashland.
 Reid, D. V. S., Albany.
 Reynolds, W. I., Buena Vista.
 Rice, Eva S., Portland.
 Riggs, P., Crowley.
 Ritner, Mary, Pendleton.
 Roak, M. V., Salem.
 Robb, W. A., Shedd.
 Roberts, W. C., Ashland.
 Robinson, R. F., East Portland.
 Royal, Ladru, Portland.
 Russell, Hortense, Ashland.
 Sabin, Ella C., Portland.
 Scott, Chas. L., Cresswell.
 Scott, Fanny, Eight Mile.
 Scriber, A., Salem.
 Sheak, N. A., Philomath.
 Shelton, R., Scio.
 Shipley, Ella M., Portland.
 Shipley, Mrs. W. J., Portland.
 Simpson, Nora, Portland.
 Smith, John M., Jacksonville.
 Smith, Wm., Portland.
 Stanley, Geo. A., Prineville.
 Stanley, Mrs. M. B., Monmouth.
 Sweet, J. S., Ashland.
 Sykes, J. B., Portland.
 Thompson, Mary A., Portland.
 Thorn, Georgie, Salem.
 Tolman, Emma, Ashland.
 Tolman, Ida, Ashland.
 Tupper, K. M. T., Portland.
 Turner, Ellen C., Portland.
 Van Buren, Mrs. A., Roseburg.
 Van Wagner, Theo., Salem.
 Van Windle, Minnie, Salem.
 Wade, Henry, Gardner.
 Wallace, I. J., Portland.
 Warrenner, Florence, Portland.
 Wetzell, W. A., Portland.
 Wheeler, E. G., Portland.
 Wheeler, Mrs. E. G., Portland.
 Whitfield, Medora, Portland.
 Whitney, Chas. H., Baker City.
 Williamson, Mrs. Nettie, Salem.

OREGON—CONCLUDED.

Willis, Ella, Roseburg.
 Willis, John A., Roseburg.
 Willis, R. H., The Dalles.
 Willis, Mrs. R. H., The Dalles.

Wilson, Sophia, Rock Point.
 Wimberly, M. O., Roseburg.
 Woodruff, Harriette, Pendleton.
 Yoder, D. W., Salem.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allmenbinger, Mrs. Kate, Philadelphia.
 Ames, Edward C., Philadelphia.
 Baker, Sallie, Jenkintown.
 Bancroft, M. H., Swarthmore.
 Beale, J., Pittsburgh.
 Bell, Thos. F., Philadelphia.
 Bently, Mrs. J. H., Neshaminy.
 Bird, Fannie, Pittsburgh.
 Blair, Geo. D., Spruce Creek.
 Bowman, M., Philadelphia.
 Brown, Marion, Allegheny.
 Budd, Emma B., Philadelphia.
 Buehrle, R. K., Lancaster.
 Chambers, Alex., Latrobe.
 Coin, Agnes M., Philadelphia.
 Cornell, Watson, Philadelphia.
 Cossart, Emma J., Philadelphia.
 Coyle, K. M., Lancaster.
 Crawford, Tillie J., Duquesne.
 Crist, Mrs. John, West Philadelphia.
 Cummings, Miss E. A., Philadelphia.
 Cummings, Jos. F., Sunburg.
 Dalzell, Belle, Pittsburgh.
 Darlington, R. Anna, West Chester.
 Diffenderfer, Frank R., Lancaster.
 Dolby, Conrad K., Morton.
 Donnelly, M. V., Philadelphia.
 Eager, Mrs. A. H., Lancaster.
 Eldridge, J. P., West Chester.
 English, Geo. L., Philadelphia.
 Evans, Emily T., Philadelphia.
 Evans, Mary L., Pittsburgh.
 Fisher, H. P., Philadelphia.
 Flanagan, Belle F., Webster.
 Fletcher, Mrs. S., Philadelphia.
 Flitcraft, Allen, Chester.
 Flitcraft, Sarah B., Chester.
 Foster, Chas. F., Chester.
 Foster, Mrs. C. F., Chester.
 Fox, Elsie M., Philadelphia.
 Fox, Mrs. H. T., Philadelphia.
 Fox, H. Russel, Philadelphia.
 Frampton, Silas, Punxsutawney.
 Frazer, J. I., Beaver Falls.
 Freedley, S. S., Norristown.
 Fritz, F. H., Philadelphia.
 Garrett, Phineas, Philadelphia.
 Gingrich, J. S., East Petersburg.
 Given, Frank S., Philadelphia.
 Given, Wm. B., Columbia.
 Given, Mrs. Wm. B., Columbia.
 Graybill, David, East Petersburg.
 Graybill, Fannie M., East Petersburg.
 Grim, A. S., Hellertown.
 Grim, Jacob L., Hellertown.
 Grim, M. E., Hellertown.
 Haberbash, L., Lancaster.

Haberbash, M., Lancaster.
 Haberbash, Mrs. M., Lancaster.
 Hamaker, D. H., Chambersburg.
 Hammond, Philip, Plymouth.
 Handlon, Jennie, East Petersburg.
 Harpel, Wm. F., Shamokin.
 Harris, Thos. A., Philadelphia.
 Harrison, Jennie B., McKeesport.
 Harrison, Martha E., McKeesport.
 Harry, Mary, Norristown.
 Hartwell, H. I., Philadelphia.
 Hayes, Wm. M., West Chester.
 Hayes, Mrs. Wm. M., West Chester.
 Healy, W. J., Scranton.
 Henry, D. R., Huntingdon.
 Herdic, James P., Williamsport.
 Heyser, Geo., Philadelphia.
 Hibbets, Wm., Philadelphia.
 Hickman, F. S., West Chester.
 Higbee, E. E., Harrisburg.
 Hillborn, Mary S., Philadelphia.
 Hoffa, Cyrus, Lewisburg.
 Hoffa, Mrs. Eliz., Lewisburg.
 Hogue, Davis A., Hautsdaile.
 Holden, Abbie B., Allegheny.
 Holden, E., Allegheny.
 Holt, J. F., Philadelphia.
 Hostetter, A. F., Lancaster.
 Houston, H. I., Knoxville, Pittsburgh.
 Inbree, Mrs. I. D., West Chester.
 Isenberg, B. F., Huntingdon.
 Jackson, Anna, Philadelphia.
 Jackson, Mrs. Ray M., Philadelphia.
 Jacobs, Mary E., Philadelphia.
 Jacobs, M. L., Norristown.
 Jeffrey, L. V., Pittsburgh.
 Jenkins, J. S., Clark's Mills.
 Jones, H. S., Erie.
 Jones, Wm., Lewisburg.
 Johnson, John H., Ashley.
 Johnson, Maria L., Philadelphia.
 Keen, Charles B., Philadelphia.
 Keen, Mrs. Chas. B., Philadelphia.
 Kervey, Harry R., West Chester.
 Kissinger, A. N., Reading.
 Kissinger, Mrs. A. N., Reading.
 Kline, Jas. G., Philadelphia.
 Knauss, J. O., Allentown.
 Knauss, Tivillia E., Allentown.
 Krauser, E., Milton.
 Landis, A. Lincoln, Collegeville.
 Landis, A. L., Collegeville.
 Lawson, W. C., Milton.
 Lerau, Landis, Lancaster.
 Lingle, Chas. S., Harrisburg.
 Link, Geo. C., West Alexander.
 Long, H., Danbury.

PENNSYLVANIA—CONCLUDED.

Mrs. H., Danbury.
 Mary, Philadelphia.
 Abbie, Erie.
 y, Geo. J., Pittsburgh.
 Dram, Millersville.
 , Mary, Mannsville.
 Blanche, Pittsburgh.
 , Geo. W., Philadelphia.
 Geo. L., West Chester.
 i, E. F., Pittsburgh.
 s, David, Philadelphia.
 s, Mrs. David, Philadelphia.
 s, Geo. A., Philadelphia.
 s, Jessie, Philadelphia.
 Emma B., Collins.
 , L. S., Philadelphia.
 ckey, M. J., Pittsburgh.
 lough, A. S., Kingston.
 lough, Frank, Altoona.
 cheon, Ella, Pittsburgh.
 cheon, T., Pittsburgh.
 cheon, S. O., Pittsburgh.
 well, J. E., Mansfield Valley.
 re, Sallie L., Milton.
 r, Uriah, Erie City.
 rton, F. V., Allegheny.
 ar, Jennie, Allegheny.
 Annie M., Lewisland.
 D. Bright, Louisburg.
 Mrs. D. B., Louisburg.
 Frank B., Louisburg.
 Jane, Norristown.
 John M., Philadelphia.
 Mary S., Wallingford.
 ck, Emma L., Newport.
 ck, Mary E., Newport.
 ck, W. H., Newport.
 e, Will L., Nanticoke.
 , Geo. W., Philadelphia.
 , Mrs. Geo. W., Philadelphia.
 , W. A., Sunbury.
 on, Andrew J., Philadelphia.
 Geo. A., Lancaster.
 ave, Mrs. A., Allegheny.
 ave, M. M., Allegheny.
 an, W. Reiff, Manheim.
 Emma L., Allegheny.
 Robert, Pittsburgh.
 y, Mrs. J. W., Sharpsville.
 ast, Mary H., Germantown.
 ast, Anna D., Germantown.
 r, Joseph, Doerun.
 r, Mrs. Joseph, Doerun.
 Leonore, Wilkesbarre.
 s, Francis C., Allegheny.
 s, Geo. M., West Chester.
 s, Lizzie M., West Chester.
 s, F. L., Scranton.
 . M., Philadelphia.
 lary R., Philadelphia.
 V. W., Philadelphia.
 , Mrs. F. A., Philadelphia.
 Arthur P., West Chester.
 T., Media.

Reist, Jno. F., Lancaster.
 Riddell, Mrs. E., Philadelphia.
 Royer, Louis, Lewistown.
 Sands, Mrs. R. M., Pittsburgh.
 Schaeffer, Nathan C., Kutztown.
 Schofield, Emma, Philadelphia.
 Scott, D. J., West Chester.
 Schellenberger, O. P., Trappe.
 Shaffner, Lillie R., Steelton.
 Shelley, W. H., York.
 Shirley, Maria, Pittsburgh.
 Simpson, Sallie F., Philadelphia.
 Single, Chas. S., Harrisburg.
 Smith, A. G. C., Media.
 Smith, Mrs. A. G. C., Media.
 Smith, J. Curtis, West Chester.
 Smith, Mrs. J. C., West Chester.
 Smith, Mary H., Pittsburgh.
 Speakman, Emma D., Philadelphia.
 Stahr, Mary A., Norristown.
 Stanger, Jas. A., Pittsburgh.
 Stehman, Mrs. E. A., Rohrerstown.
 Stehman, John M., Rohrerstown.
 Stevenson, J. S., Philadelphia.
 Stevenson, Mrs. Jno. W., Philadelphia.
 Stevenson, Mary I., Philadelphia.
 Stone, Alaric, Erie.
 Stout, David H., Philadelphia.
 Stout, Mrs. Fannie W., Philadelphia.
 Stout, Geo. H., Philadelphia.
 Swingle, W. M., Kittanning.
 Thomas, Mary, Norristown.
 Thompson, Margaret, Philadelphia.
 Thompson, S. R., New Wilmington.
 Trainer, D., jr., Philadelphia.
 Tripple, H. C., Philadelphia.
 Tripple, M. E., Philadelphia.
 Travilla, M. R., West Chester.
 Travilla, Mrs. M. R., West Chester.
 Tunis, Sarah, West Philadelphia.
 Uhl, F. A., Andover.
 Uhl, B. R., Andover.
 Umberger, John R., Dauphin.
 Von Utassy, G. W., Philadelphia.
 Waldron, R. O., Evans City.
 Walker, Florence, Allegheny.
 Wallace, Mary A., Altoona.
 Wapples, E. B., Philadelphia.
 Warful, John B., Lancaster.
 Warful, Jessie F., Lancaster.
 Warful, Mrs. M. G., Lancaster.
 Weaver, Mrs. J. K., Norristown.
 Weaver, Mrs. W. C., Coopersburg.
 Weir, Annie, Plymouth.
 Wheeler, Mrs. R. C., Norristown.
 White, Emma F., Latrobe.
 Whitson, Mary H., Philadelphia.
 Wiler, Lena P., West Philadelphia.
 Wiler, S. L., West Philadelphia.
 Willard, J. Monroe, Germantown.
 Williamson, C. Frank, Media.
 Willyoung, E. G., Philadelphia.
 Wolff, C. M., Hanover.
 Ziegler, M. H., Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.

Ackley, W. N., Warren.
 Anderson, Thos. D., Providence.
 Angell, Emma A., Providence.
 Atkinson, Clara A., Newport.
 Carr, Josephine, Warren.
 Clark, Abby W., Providence.
 Clark, Mrs. Mary M., Providence.
 Collins, A. C., Warren.
 Collins, Mrs. E. F., Warren.
 Dewing, Ardelia C., Providence.
 Eddy, S. F., Pawtucket.
 Esten, Cora J., Pascoag.
 Freeborn, L. J., Warren.
 Guilbert, Jean F., Providence.
 Greene, Chas. J., Kenyon.

Haskell, Ruth A., Providence.
 Kirwan, John T., Providence.
 Mallory, Mrs. E. W., Providence.
 Mirriam, Mrs. Bessie G., Providence.
 Morgan, Thos. J., Providence.
 Morgan, Mrs. Thos. J., Providence.
 Newton, Florence V., Newport.
 Peck, Annie S., Providence.
 Peck, Geo. B., Providence.
 Rea, Hattie A., Providence.
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